

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1874.

The Week.

THE President has nominated General Van Buren for the consulship at Kanagawa, and his name is hanging in doubt in the Senate. Now, General Van Buren was removed from the head of the American Commission at Vienna, as the public understood, for one of three things—dishonesty, connivance at dishonesty, or incapacity to see and prevent dishonesty among his subordinates. The charges were never formally published, and General Van Buren, as we understand, in vain asked for an investigation of them at the hands of the Government; and to this day the public is ignorant of their exact nature; but we have excellent authority for saying that they or some of them were made out to the full satisfaction of the able and respected Americans who took charge of the Commission after General Van Buren had been displaced. To nominate him now for another office requiring not only integrity but considerable tact and perspicacity, is or ought to be an acknowledgment that the action of the Government in the Vienna matter was outrageously unjust, and that men like Mr. Jay, Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, and Mr. W. T. Blodgett, were grossly deceived after an elaborate examination of the charges made against General Van Buren. The Senate ought not to confirm him without clearing the matter up; and we may add, that although no appointment from the White House now surprises people, Mr. Fish can hardly afford to have appointments of this kind fathered on him.

Secretary Richardson has written a letter to the chairman of the Committee on Commerce on the subject of Custom-house seizures and espionage, which goes over the whole ground with great clearness, and makes certain recommendations which we sincerely hope will receive due attention. He points out that the great source of frauds on the Custom-house is false invoices and entries and undervaluations, and all these offences are stimulated or suggested by the intricacy and multiplicity of the statutes fixing the rates of duty and manner of collection. As a remedy for this, he recommends, as both his immediate predecessors have done, the revision and consolidation of the tariff acts, and the substitution, as far as practicable, of specific for ad-valorem duties. He recognizes the shameful evils of the practice of paying large rewards to informers, and acknowledges that the principal object of all Government police should be the prevention rather than the detection of crime, and recommends that the system of moieties be abolished, and no rewards paid hereafter, except where an attempt at smuggling is detected, or the smuggled goods are afterwards seized, in which case he thinks the informer and seizing officers should have their zeal recompensed and stimulated by a reward, which is very fair; and he demands additional restrictions on the right of search, but does not define them. First amongst them should be the limitation of the time within which an importer should be liable to pursuit on account of smuggling or evasion or fraud. It is monstrous to allow Custom-house officers to run back over a merchant's transactions for years in search of proofs of guilt. Second should come a rigid requirement that papers or books sought for should be particularly described in the warrant, and that, when seized, they should be handed over to and examined by a judge or other magistrate, or in his presence, and not secretly by a political adventurer, temporarily called "A Special Agent," offering none of the ordinary guarantees of honesty or intelligence.

Yesterday week in the Senate, finance being still the subject of discussion, Mr. Morrill (Vermont) made a telling attack upon Mr.

Boutwell, and showed for him a piteous "record" on the subject of resumption. The senator from Vermont closed with an allusion to an honored senator from Massachusetts who had formerly been in the Senate, which might give matter for reflection to the Legislature now in session at Boston. The allusion was to Webster and one of his speeches on the evils of a disordered currency. Mr. Morrill showed that in 1866 Mr. Boutwell, then in the House, voted aye on the passage of a resolution "pledging a return to specie payments as soon as practicable"; that in 1869, in his first report as Secretary of the Treasury, he urged that the Secretary be allowed to withdraw \$2,000,000 of paper-money each month with a view to speedy resumption; and that in 1872 he reiterated these sentiments. But last week he could not see, he said, how the greenback was of the nature of a protested note, because the promise to redeem it is to redeem it "some time." In the same debate Mr. Bayard made a good speech. On the same day Mr. Edmunds introduced a bill giving circuit judges the right, under certain circumstances, to employ a secretary at an annual salary of \$2,500. On Thursday, the 29th ult., the currency was again under discussion, and Mr. Carpenter afterwards began his set speech, two days long, on the Louisiana question—a question which, according to common local rumor, has now definitely become the football for several senators who have aspirations.

In the House the week began with an attempt of the Committee on Appropriations, Mr. Garfield at the head, to do some practical work in the way of retrenchment. They reported a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to "cover back" into the Treasury certain unexpended appropriations for public buildings and grounds. As this measure touched with the accuracy of a skilful diagnosis the precise complaint of each individual Congressman who is of a practical turn and wants public money to spend in his district, it was in the twinkling of an eye rejected. The vote on referring it to the Committee on Public Buildings instead of the Committee on Appropriations was 157 yeas to 76 nays; the House voting under an assurance from Mr. Garfield to an enquiring member that, of course, if so referred, "that would be the last of it." In the afternoon the Committee on Appropriations was charged by one speaker with being too grasping in its demands for power over the legislature. On the other hand, Mr. Garfield complained that, after so many weeks spent by the Committee in perfecting the bill, they should find, as soon as they presented it, that the House was abstractly very willing to retrench, while concrete retrenchment, on the other hand, was an extremely different thing. The Army Appropriation Bill was under discussion on this same day, and again on Thursday, and has been the principal business of the week. On Thursday Mr. Maynard reported a currency bill, but the currency debate is apparently to be postponed for the present, so far as bringing it to a conclusion in any definite measure. On Friday General Howard's case came up, as on Monday it did in the Senate, and there is to be a military investigation of the charges against this gentleman.

A number of the most reputable property-owners of the District of Columbia presented a week ago, through Senator Thurman, a petition to the Senate which is a remarkable document. They say that they "honestly believe that evidence can readily be obtained by an appropriate joint select committee" to establish the truth of the following propositions against the officers of the government of the District of Columbia: that they have improvidently expended large sums of money in improvements, some quite unnecessary, others in so careless a manner that they have turned out useless; that they have made contracts for improvements without any public notice, and with their private friends, greatly to the loss and injury of the District;

that they have taken the property of citizens without making just compensation; have levied taxes unequally and illegally; have increased the expenses of the District and the taxes of citizens by permitting improvements to be falsely measured; have caused the construction of what are really private roads to the suburban residences of some of the officers at public expense; have permitted the loss of public money by deposits in "favorite but unsafe" banks; have created debts to an illegal amount; have prevented citizens from having the means prescribed by law of access to the records and inspection of contracts and specifications; and have introduced a system of special taxation which must result in the "actual confiscation of the real property of the citizens"; that while the District has become poor, many of the officers have grown very rich. All these charges the petitioners offer to substantiate by proof.

As soon as this petition had been put in, Governor Shepherd, familiarly known as the "Boss," presented a "memorial" on his own part objecting to any investigation, on the ground that he had been investigated by the House already, and also on the ground that the "taxpayers" were not taxpayers at all, as they had not paid some of the assessments which he himself had, according to their account, illegally made. Both of these replies were in fact mere pretences; the former investigation by the House amounted to nothing. This week Mr. Wilson, of Indiana, moved in the House the appointment of a Joint Select Committee, in accordance with the prayer of the memorialists, and amid a good deal of excitement the motion was adopted by a vote of 129 yeas, the nays not being counted. The Speaker appointed on the part of the House Messrs. Wilson of Indiana, Hale of New York, Hubbell of Michigan, Republicans; Clymer of Pennsylvania, and Jewett of Ohio, Democrats—all fair appointments. The investigation is intended partly as an attack on the Administration, and the "Boss" is said to be in great consternation, as he well may be. Some letters have been published (the authenticity of which we have not seen denied anywhere), and which are rather more damaging than we should expect to find in print even after such barefaced proceedings as have been going on in the District of Columbia for the last two years. In one of them a real-estate agent named Hallett Kilbourne writes to one of the gang, Wm. B. Huntington, announcing that it is the intention of himself and his friends "to gobble up all the asphalt or concrete pavements we can," and mentioning incidentally that they "had to make a small ring of about seven persons in order to accomplish results," and that in this ring they "put all the concretes."

The Louisiana case remains in the same condition it did last week. The President no doubt wishes to wash his hands of Louisiana, and a message from him was daily expected and announced. Nevertheless, he determined not to send it. According to one correspondent's account, the reason for the delay in the impeachment of Durell is that the Administration wishes to have him impeached for non-political crimes and misdemeanors; i.e., we may suppose, for drunkenness and corruption, while Durell's friends say that, as his real offence is that he obeyed his superior at Washington not wisely but too well, he ought to be impeached for his decisions on the bench, hoping by this argument to convince the President and the Republican managers that they had better leave the judge alone, as the decisions in question were supposed to have been "inspired." Mr. Pinchback is still trying to get his seat in the Senate, but it looks badly for him, as very damaging charges, of the most intricately corrupt practices in elections, have been made against him. Having received, it is said, a sum of money that he might corruptly use it as a *solatium* for his feelings in withdrawing from the senatorial contest in favor of one Norton, he did as a matter of fact corruptly use it for a purpose the opposite of that for which it was given, namely, to secure his own election, no doubt supposing that as the end in view was in either case the triumph of good men, the means used would be justified.

Kellogg's Funding Bill, which razes the Louisiana State debt from twenty-four to fifteen millions, and reduces the total State tax one-fourth, has passed the Legislature, and the cheering effect of this repudiation is said to have been shown at a large real-estate auction recently held in New Orleans by an average advance of twenty per cent—a rise which, it is stated, is general throughout the city. The passage of this bill, with the constitutional amendments, has obliterated the white opposition to Kellogg. The Chamber of Commerce and leading business men, all of whom were opposed to him last winter, now support him, and back his Funding Bill. They know they can get along with Kellogg, but fear a new election would put Pinchback and the worst element of negroes in complete control. Casey has turned against Kellogg, and Kellogg is courted by and is coquetting with the Conservatives, with a view to making a decent government and "redeeming the State." He can't control the rotten Republicans, the Reformers say, unless he will let them steal. Warmoth and "a ring of thieves" is said to "control" McEnery, who is weak, and to have formed an alliance with Casey to get a new election and capture the State Treasury. Ben Butler is said to have "sold out for cash to this ring two or three times, and to have been bought back by Kellogg as often." Men in Congress are said to have threatened to go for a new election unless bought off. Norton, who has grown wealthy by being appointed assignee in bankruptcy in all cases by Durell, is said to have been trying to buy the committee. He charges that the investigation is got up by Ben Butler and Wilson of Indiana—who are Jay Cooke's attorneys—with a view to help the repeal of the Bankrupt Act by making its administration odious. On the whole, a pleasant picture of orderly and wholesome government. For the accuracy of all the details we do not vouch; indeed the colors change from week to week.

Up to this writing, the Conservatives have been carrying everything before them in the British elections. At the close of last week, 31 Conservatives had been returned to 25 Liberals, and on Monday 26 Conservatives to 13 Liberals were returned in England and Wales, and the Home Rulers made slight gains in Ireland. Mr. Disraeli is using ferocious language on the stump, and denounces the sudden dissolution "as an act of the blackest treachery." Perhaps the most comic incident in the struggle thus far is Mr. Bradlaugh's farewell letter to the *Tribune* before starting suddenly for home, in which he left us plainly to understand that Mr. Gladstone had taken a mean advantage of him by suddenly dissolving Parliament when he was out of the country. He, however, expected to be elected for the borough of Northampton, and to make "the fur fly" among the people's enemies when he got home. Now that he has gone and has cancelled all his lecturing engagements, we may be allowed to say that we think the discussion as a partisan of the internal politics of one country before audiences in another country who have no knowledge, or only an imperfect knowledge, of the issues involved, by a lecturer who enjoys free speech to the widest extent at home, is a rather undesirable mode of making money.

The returns of the elections for the German Parliament have now come in, and give a very fair idea of the exact nature of the difficulties with which Bismarck will have to contend in carrying out his ecclesiastical policy. Of 397 members, there will be 100 Ultramontanes, a gain of 38 on the last Parliament. Instead of 2 Socialists, there will be 12; while the number of Conservatives proper has been cut down from 90 to 10. As the Conservatives, however, often voted with the Ministry, this is a loss to the latter. The Alsations send up 15 members, who are of course in opposition, making a distinct and computable loss to the Ministry of 53. The opposition is thus composed of 100 Ultramontanes, 12 Socialists, 10 Conservatives, 15 Alsations, 10 Particularists, 15 Poles and Danes, 10 "Wilden," or Savages, which Mr. Raster of Chicago begs us to explain does not mean that they are barbarians, but simply

rovers owing no allegiance to any party in particular. This makes a total of 172 against a majority of 225, which though not homogeneous, or in all respects harmonious, the Government can nevertheless count on with tolerable certainty on all critical questions. The Ultramontanes draw their force mainly from the large states, in which the question of unity is so well settled that people feel that they can afford to indulge their feelings on other questions. The small states, on the other hand, go dead against the Pope, and this whatever may be the faith of the majority. Even in Bavaria, where there are but 11 electoral districts out of 48 in which the Protestants are in a majority, only 27 Ultramontane deputies are returned. The larger cities all send up Liberals as usual; the small ones mostly Clericals. The increase in the Socialist element in the Parliament is a significant indication of the way in which manhood suffrage is likely to work in Germany.

The Pope has greatly feared, ever since the occupation of Rome by the Italian Government, that the election of his successor would be in some way interfered with, or influenced so as to fill the chair of St. Peter with somebody who would come to terms with modern civilization, or at all events accept accomplished facts as regards the temporal power. He has accordingly issued a decree making such relaxations in the rules of election as will enable the cardinals to come to some agreement as to the next Pope before the present one dies. He abolishes the law requiring the election to be held in the place where the Pope dies, so as to enable the Conclave to be held if necessary outside the jurisdiction of the "Subalpine King," as he calls Victor Emanuel, and such other statutes regulating ceremonies and usages as may be omitted without detriment to canonical validity. Cardinals are also to be allowed to talk freely in the lifetime of the present Pope regarding the choice of his successor, a thing hitherto strictly prohibited, and Monaco, or some city in France, or Malta, is suggested as the proper place in which to hold the Conclave; but cardinals are sternly forbidden to attend meetings or deliberations regarding the election prior to the death of the Pope. In exhorting them at the close to lay aside all personal considerations for the sake of the church, His Holiness indulges in a bit of mixed metaphor worthy of Senator Conkling, by saying that "should circumstances prevent the appointment of a helmsman to direct the course of the ship, this would expose the Catholic flock to the attacks of wolves." In fact, as the Irish barrister remarked at a celebrated trial, "he smells a rat; he sees it brewing in the air, and he is going to nip it in the bud."

The authenticity of this brief was at first stoutly denied by the Ultramontane press in Germany. It was at first said that no such document existed; then that it did exist, but that the copy published was incorrect; and, finally, the *Germania*, which is a Papal organ, alleged that the copy brought out was obtained through bribery by the German Legation at Rome. The *Cologne Gazette*, however, set the matter at rest by producing the brief in the original Latin, dated May 28, 1873, and the semi-official *Norddeutsche Zeitung*, adopting the New York plan, offered to pay over \$2,000 to Peter's Pence if the *Germania* would prove that the German Legation bought the copy. The question is now raised by the German press whether any of the powers which hold treaty or customary relations with the Papacy under which the Catholic Church enjoys favor or protection in their dominions, will be any longer bound by them in view of the changes which the present Pope has wrought or is working in the constitution of the church. Moreover, the proposal that the Conclave should be held in France is not calculated to allay the excitement, the French bishops having already denounced the German and Italian Governments so fiercely as to call forth diplomatic remonstrance from Germany and lead to a circular from the French Minister of Public Worship, counselling moderation. The general understanding at this writing is said to be that the German and Italian Governments at least will not

acknowledge any election of the Pope which is not conducted according to established forms, although it is not denied that it is within the power of the Pope to change them; but it is alleged that changes such as are now proposed have only been made hitherto when there was real danger that the election would be interfered with by violence. According to the standing rules of procedure, a delay of nine days takes place after the Pope's death, to enable Cardinals to arrive from a distance. The Conclave then meets, and sits under lock and key until the election is complete. The voting is done by papers, and the result is apt to be reached finally much in the mode common at American political conventions, by a transfer of votes to the most likely candidates by the adherents of others.

The new Spanish Government has issued an address to the nation, explaining and defending the late revolution. It says that the late Cortes, having been elected by a minority in the midst of a reign of terror, had no moral authority; that it was from the first torn by dissensions, an object of "indifference to the public and of terror to social interests"; that in its ingratitude to "the eloquent tribune and honored patriot and eminent statesman," it stripped him of his dictatorship, "salutary and saving as it was"; that it was incapable of forming another Government, and Spain was threatened either with the horrors of anarchy or the horrors of Carlist absolutism, when General Pavia interfered and dissolved it; that the prominent politicians of the country, at a meeting held immediately afterwards, cordially approved of what had been done, and recognized General Serrano as Chief of the Executive Power; that the suspension of the liberties of the country is absolutely necessary until order is everywhere restored and the Carlist and cantonal insurrections are suppressed, but that "the cardinal law of the state" remains untouched; the Constitution of 1869 still stands; the Government of Spain is still a democratic republic, and offers security for property, religious liberty, protection for the Catholic Church, and all the other "exalted principles of modern democracy." The address is signed by all the Ministers, who are a very strong body, and are taken from all political parties. The Minister of the Interior, Ruiz, is an old Unitarian Republican, who labored and suffered for his ideas under Isabella, and aided in her overthrow. Admiral Topete is Minister of Marine; General Zabala, the Minister of War, occupied the same position under King Amadeus. Martos, the Minister of Justice, is a thorough democrat and an experienced office-holder; Echegaray is perhaps the foremost economist in Spain, an advanced Liberal, and was Minister of Finance under Amadeus.

The meeting of which the address speaks was called in the building from which the Congress had been driven immediately after the *coup d'état* by General Pavia. He sent invitations to all the leading generals and politicians who had taken part in the Revolution of 1868, except the Carlists and Intransigentes. The Alphonsists, Radicals, Unitarian Republicans, were all represented. Pavia then addressed them, acknowledging the gravity of the act which he had just performed, and declaring that he did it on his own and sole responsibility, in the belief that the defeat of Castelar would once more bring men into power who would break up the army which Castelar had reorganized, and reduce society to the brink of dissolution. Somebody had to stand in the breach, and he had done it, with the cordial support of the army; and he then called on those present to form a government, but declined to form part of it himself, or to accept any honor or reward for himself or his troops. There was then some discussion as to what the form or name of the government should be; and it was decided, in the teeth of stout opposition from the Alphonsists, that it should still be the Spanish Republic. A coalition cabinet was then formed, with Serrano at the head of it. It must be admitted that Pavia cuts a very creditable figure in the affair as compared with either his French or English prototypes. Neither Cromwell nor the Bonapartes behaved as well when they turned Parliament out of doors.

"THIS PARTICULAR MEASURE" IN FINANCE.

OUR readers may remember that when civil-service reform was occupying the public mind two years ago to such a degree that Congress was obliged to take notice of it, and even to legislate about it, it was found that nearly everybody was in favor of reform, but that no two could agree on any "particular measure" of reform. No matter what bill was introduced, it was found to be fatally defective, until at last a large number of plain people, who retained their faith in Congressional honesty and wisdom, began to look on the abuses of the present system as a part of the order of the universe, the modification of which Providence had reserved to itself, and before which man's feeble reason tottered on its throne. There is some danger that the public mind may get into the same condition about the resumption of specie payments. There is a large body of men in Congress who are not in favor of resuming at all, some because they know nothing whatever about questions of finance, and others because they have been disinterring as valuable treasures a number of the old notions about paper-money which got afloat in Europe about the beginning of the last century, and were exploded by the experience of the United States, England, and France towards the end of it. We do not believe these people can do any serious mischief. There is too much difference of opinion amongst them about the precise composition of their medicine to make it possible for them to get any dangerous and permanent hold on the public mind. We run more risk just at present from the apathy or differences of those who understand the evils of our present system and really wish to get rid of it, than from any other cause; for if those who really believe in resumption are unable to agree on any step towards resumption, the lookers-on, who compose the great body of the people, will naturally drift into the conclusion that resumption is a chimera; and if the fault-finding with every "particular measure" continues much longer, to this conclusion they will surely come.

We are already suffering some of the consequences of this apathy or querulousness on the part of the right-minded in the issue of the \$44,000,000 "reserve." The first issue of this was made in the fall of 1872, and was really the first step towards inflation and away from resumption, yet it called forth little or no protest and excited but little attention. Not only was it an insidious assumption of power on the part of the Secretary, but it gave a new character to this bundle of notes. It changed them from a parcel of "cancelled" currency into an instrument for raising prices and increasing the public debt—an instrument of the most dangerous kind, which the Secretary could use at any moment; and although this first issue was soon withdrawn, every thinking man perceived that the Rubicon was passed and that the appearance of the whole of the "reserve" on the market was thereafter simply a question of time or circumstance. It is important to dwell on this because, as the Springfield *Republican* well pointed out the other day, the mischief of the issue on which Mr. Richardson is now engaged must not be measured by the relation of the \$44,000,000 to the total amount of the currency. It adds only about one-seventh to the legal-tenders and only about one-fourteenth to the total paper circulation of the country, but it has in all probability doubled the difficulty of resuming specie payments, for we have no doubt that it would have been found, as the *Republican* says, that resumption was after all only an affair of about \$50,000,000; that is, that if there were confidence that the Treasury could stand a run for gold, \$50,000,000 is all that it would be called upon to pay, though perhaps not by any means all it would need to hold. When a man fails for \$1,000,000, and has only \$900,000 in available assets, it is not the owing of the \$900,000 that brings him to the ground but the owing of the \$100,000, and if he gives notes at the last moment for \$100,000 more, he only increases his debts by one-tenth, while he will have doubled the difficulty of avoiding bankruptcy. Had there been anything like union of sentiment among the friends of resumption, there might have been such an outcry raised when the "reserve" began to be first talked of, that the great misfortune of its issue, and of the stimulus to

inflationist schemes which the spectacle of its issue has given, might have been prevented.

Of course, one of the great difficulties of the situation is due to the absence of a responsible and competent minister of finance in the midst of one of the most serious and important crises through which any nation has ever passed—that is, the absence of anybody who has reached the Treasury, as ministers of finance usually reach it, through a process of natural selection, after repeated public displays of ability in the treatment of financial problems, and who would, therefore, speak on them with weight and authority, and to whom would be left the task of framing plans to which the public could give its undivided attention, and which competent judges could discuss seriously and carefully. But then, there is enough financial ability in the country, and enough adaptability in the people to overcome this difficulty, if there were anything like proper comprehension of the gravity of the situation in which we find ourselves. The evils of delay in dealing with the problem are admirably illustrated by the various phases through which the Government promises-to-pay have gone, we will not say in popular estimation, but in the estimation of a large body of politicians, since 1864. The greenback, since first issued, has been:

1. An evidence of debt, contracted by a forced loan as a war measure, issued with great timidity and shamefacedness, for a short time only, and soon to be turned into gold-bearing bonds.

2. A very good kind of money as a makeshift, and causing less disturbance in trade and industry than one would have expected.

3. A very useful money, inasmuch as it prevents panics and bank suspensions.

4. The people's money, *par excellence*, as opposed to gold and silver, the bankers' and aristocrats' money, and as being issued by the people's government.

5. The true American and democratic money, inasmuch as it will only circulate in the United States, and is, therefore, in all probability, the money of the future for all mankind.

6. "The best currency the world ever saw," and one of the happiest and greatest of recent inventions, and capable of being indefinitely improved in quality by being increased in quantity.

As a promissory note, too, the greenback has gone through the three stages of (a) a note payable at the earliest possible moment; (b) a note payable when convenient; and (c) not a promissory note at all, but a sign of value, and, according to some, a species of wealth.

In examining the difficulties under which currency doctors labor, we may as well put aside at once, and without further consideration, the grand scheme for a perpetual paper currency "based" on Government bonds. The lodgment this has effected in some brains is due to confusion of mind on the subject of convertibility. They see that paper-money is never found to be convertible when everybody wishes to convert all at once, and they therefore ask, Why have it convertible at all? The answer is, that the main use of convertibility is not security, but the prevention of over-issues and the maintenance of monetary relations with the rest of the world. When we say notes are convertible, we do not mean that if *everybody* carried his money to the bank or the Treasury he could get gold for it, any more than we mean that a banker could pay all his depositors at once when we say he is safe. We seek to maintain proper monetary relations with the rest of the world, so as to leave the power of contraction and expansion in the hands of lawful traders and take it out of the hands of the Kelleys, and Mortons, and Boutwells, and Richardsons. With anybody who does not see this there is little use in arguing until he has learnt more. There are many unsettled points in finance as there are in chemistry and astronomy, but there are some which are settled; and about which there is no longer any disputation, except among dunces. The friends of resumption may, therefore, fairly turn their minds to the question of getting back to the old system of finance, and leave the discussion of new "bases" for circulating medium

to the speculative philosophers of the debating clubs. In considering ways and means of resumption, too, would it not be well to go back at once to the original notion of the legal-tender issue when it was first made, and held firmly to this, and make it the starting-point for all suggestions? That notion was that the greenbacks were an acknowledgment on the part of the Government that it had raised a certain sum by a forced loan, and would repay it at the earliest possible moment. This is a perfectly simple notion and a perfectly accurate one. If it be firmly held, and not mixed up with theories about the nature and functions of "money," it will unquestionably facilitate the subsequent steps in the investigation. The Government now says: "These promises of mine have become the circulating medium of the country; if I call them suddenly in, I shall cause serious loss and inconvenience; if, on the other hand, I collect gold enough to pay them off, I shall cause a gold crisis, which might have very grave consequences here and in Europe." Now, if an individual debtor made this perfectly reasonable answer to his creditors, would they not, if sensible business men, say something of this sort in reply: "It is true you cannot call in all your paper at once, or even provide coin for its payment all at once; but you can certainly do it by degrees. You have now for ten years put us off with vague promises; let us have something definite. What portion of your income will you agree to set aside annually for the payment of your liabilities, or, in other words, how much of your paper will you agree to take up each month or year on a day certain? Of course we know it is all payable 'on demand,' but, as experience has proved, this means nothing. Name your own days and amounts; don't distress yourself or anybody else, but give us something certain as to the future, on which we can base our calculations and to which we can adapt our business. We do not care if it takes you ten years to get out of debt; all we ask is that you begin; and in the meantime we would suggest that you cease to trouble us with pamphlets on 'finance,' or proposals for a 'new departure,' or accounts of the discovery of a new 'basis' for credit. We have no time for these speculations, and you will pardon us for observing that we think that, besides turning your attention away from your affairs, they are exercising a decidedly blunting effect on your moral perceptions?"

Now, if this be a rational view of the matter, we are brought down at once to the plans proposed by Mr. J. S. Ropes and Mr. John M. Forbes of Boston, and more recently by Mr. W. W. Phelps in the House. They differ in detail, but only slightly; in principle they are the same; and the principle is that the Government shall begin to pay its overdue debts by instalments, at such dates as will best suit its convenience; or, in other words, will name a day in each month when it will redeem a certain number of greenbacks in gold. Mr. Ropes and Mr. Phelps propose to do this by fresh issues, payable on a day certain, in lieu of the present issue; Mr. Forbes by stamping on the greenbacks now out the date on which the Treasury will take them up. We shall not discuss the minor bearings of these plans to-day, but resumption in accordance with any one of them is simple, comprehensible, and feasible, and can do no harm to anybody; or, at all events, as little harm as is consistent with ever repaying money that has been borrowed and spent. Two things are certain—that if we wait to resume until we have hit upon a plan which will cause nobody any inconvenience whatever, we shall never resume at all; and, secondly, that as long as we do not resume, the business of the country will continue at the mercy of a class composed in part of ignorant visionaries, and in part of cunning, adventurous speculators, some rich and some poor, who, by keeping a cloud over the financial and commercial future, make steady industry seem less and less attractive and gambling enterprises more and more necessary. One can hardly avoid feeling that the very bases of civilization are assailed when an old political trickster, publicly in the Senate, asks a people like this to set aside the teachings of human experience, and the conclusions of several generations of the most eminent, careful thinkers and observers of all countries, for the crude fancies hatched in his own brain in preparation for a Presidential canvass.

CONGRESS AND THE RAILWAYS.

AFTER discussions which have lasted through several years, it is at last definitely proposed by many persons that Congress should assume, in a positive manner, control over the railroad traffic of the country, at least over that which passes along the great through routes between the West and the East. The various measures which have been proposed, and which receive the strongest support both within and without the National Legislature, may be reduced by overlooking the mere differences of detail to the following generic forms: (1) The construction of new lines, and (2) the supervision of those already existing. By the first of these plans Congress will construct, or will charter corporations empowered to construct, additional railways traversing the States, which will of course be entirely under its management and direction. By the second, Congress will impose a body of regulations upon the State railways, having particular reference to the rates of charge for the transport of goods and persons, and will provide for the enforcement of these regulations by appropriate penalties and through the agency of national officials. Without examining at present the expediency of such legislation, we propose to enquire whether Congress has authority to adopt either of these general plans by virtue of its "power to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States"; for to this constitutional grant of power alone it is conceded that both must be referred.

It will narrow the discussion if we ascertain at the outset exactly what doctrines have been definitively established by the practice of the legislature and by the decisions of the highest national tribunal. In a most remarkable series of cases, commencing with *Gilbert v. Ogden* in 1824, and *Brown v. Maryland* in 1827, the Supreme Court has discussed the constitutional grant and its relations with State legislation; but the very latest decision of that high tribunal goes further than any former one of the series, and makes it unnecessary for us to look behind it for the construction which has been finally established. In this case the Court has in the most formal manner held that the grant to Congress of power to regulate inter-State commerce is exclusive; or, in other words, that the States cannot regulate even in the absence of any national legislation upon the subject. This proposition, which had never before been decided, was affirmed by all the judges in a case arising upon a statute of Pennsylvania, which imposed a tax per ton upon all goods carried out of, across, or into that commonwealth. The two dissentient judges—Swayne and Davis—did not deny the correctness of this general conclusion, but differed from the majority simply in their construction of the act under consideration, holding that it did not purport to impose a tax upon such goods. This decision is also of transcendent importance in another aspect. It determines the nature of the inter-State commerce which the States cannot, but which Congress can, regulate. Most of the railways affected by the statute—and among them the Reading Company, which was a party litigant—lie wholly within the territory of Pennsylvania, and were incorporated by its legislature. It is established, therefore, by the highest tribunal of the land, that although the route itself over which the traffic passes—such as a railroad, canal, or river—lies wholly within the boundaries of an individual State, yet the business of transporting goods and persons over such route, from or to a terminus in another commonwealth, is "commerce among the States," which Congress alone can regulate, and which the State legislature cannot regulate, even by a statute which directly applies to the goods or persons only while they are passing over such route and are entirely within the territorial jurisdiction of the State.

These principles being treated as settled, we will apply them to the two plans before described, the second of which is now pending in the shape of a bill before the House of Representatives, and is supported by a very favorable and elaborate report from its Committee on Railroads. The whole discussion in respect to this particular plan must be reduced to a very narrow point, namely: Is the establishment of rates of freight for goods, and of fare for persons, a

regulation of commerce within the meaning of the Constitution? If this question must be answered in the affirmative, then the pending bill is clearly within the competence of the legislature, for Congress may regulate inter-State commerce, and the act of transporting goods or persons from one State to another, no matter where the termini of the railroads may be over which a part of the transport is carried on, is inter-State commerce. The propositions which we shall state as an indirect answer to this question result as consequences absolutely necessary from the doctrine announced by the Supreme Court in the recent case already described; and although they do not furnish a positive solution of the enquiry, yet they are a very powerful negative argument, analogous to the *reductio ad absurdum*. They are as follows: If the fixing the rates of charge for the transport of goods and persons over railways from one State into another is a "regulation of commerce," then all existing provisions of State statutes, all clauses in charters granted by State legislatures, which have the effect to establish such rates, or which place restrictions and limitations upon the railroads engaged in such transport, are, and always have been, utterly null and void; and in the absence of limitations imposed by Congress, the railways are free to arrange their charges and tolls for such inter-State traffic in the manner which best pleases them, except as they may be restrained by doctrines of the common law applicable to common carriers. In the same manner, if the construction of railroads traversing the States or forming links in a route which conducts traffic from one State to another, or the creation of corporations empowered to construct such lines, be a "regulation," then the States have no authority, either directly or by the intervention of corporations, to make such roads, and the charters of all companies which extend over the territory of two or more States, or whose separate roads are united to form the great through routes, over which the through commerce is carried, are, and always have been, utterly null and void. These two propositions are certainly startling, and they may at first blush even appear wild; but from the premises assumed they are deduced with absolute certainty; their demonstration is as complete as that of any theorem of Euclid. The nature of the conclusions thus inevitable shows that something is wrong in the premises, and that one or other of them must be abandoned.

Congress has power "to regulate commerce among the States"; the transport of goods and persons from one State into another, although the vehicle or instrument or means of the carrying may both physically and legally exist wholly within one State, is such "commerce among the States." Congress, it is now established, has exclusive power to regulate this species of commerce; the States are deprived of all such power; they cannot act even in the absence of national legislation, for it is the provision of the Constitution, and not of any national statute, which disables them. These principles are settled beyond further controversy. Now, whatever enactment is a "regulation" of this inter-State commerce must fall within the competency of Congress, and not within that of the State legislatures. From the very nature of the subject, whenever it is ascertained that Congress may adopt a given measure because it is a regulation of the commerce in question, it is, at the same time and for the same reasons, ascertained that the States cannot and never could adopt that measure. This position cannot be questioned; it was the very doctrine established by the great case of the Freight Taxes referred to before. The statute imposing the tax was pronounced a nullity because it was a "regulation" of "commerce among the States," and was, therefore, dealing with a subject-matter entirely withdrawn from State jurisdiction. There had been no legislation of Congress interfering with such an exercise of the taxing function belonging to the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, nor was any clause of the national Constitution invoked except the one already quoted. This particular tax was a regulation of inter-State commerce by one State, and was therefore void. The same principle must apply to every other State act which is a regulation of this species of commerce; for the want of power in the States, and the existence of power in the nation, depend, not upon the particular form or object of the act, but upon the fact that the act, whatever

be its form and object, is a regulation of commerce. Furthermore, it is equally plain that any given measure or legislative act which is a regulation of commerce when adopted by Congress is equally so when adopted by a State; the essential nature of the measure does not depend upon the representative body which enacts it. If, therefore, Congress may do a thing because it is a regulation of commerce, the same thing will be a regulation of commerce if proposed in a State legislature, and will be beyond the authority of that body.

Applying these principles to the question at issue, there is no express power conferred upon Congress to build or to authorize the building of railroads, nor to fix the rates of charge for inter-State traffic upon existing roads; there is no such implied power contained in any Constitutional grant except the one relating to commerce. If the building of railroads by Congress, or the authorizing them to be built, within or across the territory of States, be lawful; if the establishment by Congress of maximum rates of charge for transport from a point within to a point without a State on existing railroads be lawful, both are so because they are legitimate regulations of inter-State commerce. Being such regulations, they are within the sphere of powers given to Congress, and for the same reason are and always have been beyond the sphere of powers given to the States. It follows from the assumptions thus far made that States have no power to prescribe the rates of charge and toll for the transport of goods and persons from a point within to a point without a State, and have no power to build nor to authorize the building of railroads which shall be instruments and means of such transport; being regulations of "commerce among the States," these measures are outside the functions allotted to the local governments, and belong exclusively to the National Government. All existing statutes which impose such rates, and all existing charters which authorize such roads, are, therefore, as null and void as the Pennsylvania law imposing the tax upon goods passing through that commonwealth.

The reasoning by which these conclusions have been reached is perfect; not a flaw can be detected in the logic; but the conclusions themselves are monstrous. We doubt not they would seem monstrous even to the most violent partisan of Congressional interference in the Railroad Committee of the Lower House. Where is the difficulty? If it does not reside in the process of reasoning which we have followed, it must reside in the premises which we have assumed, and which are the very premises assumed by the advocates of the pending measures. Some of these premises are correct beyond the possibility of a doubt, for they are either contained in the express language of the Constitution, or have been always accepted by all departments of the Government and by the people without dissent. The only ones which can possibly be questioned are, first, the doctrine that the power to regulate commerce among the States belongs exclusively to Congress; and, secondly, the claim that the measures of control over rates of charge and the construction of railways are properly "regulations of commerce." The former of these we cannot now discuss. It is enough to say that the power of Congress over foreign commerce and over inter-State commerce is given in the same clause and by the same words, and without a suggestion of any difference in their extent. That the power of Congress over foreign commerce is exclusive is one of the settled facts—one of the commonplaces—of our constitutional law. Although the Supreme Court has as a court never been called upon until now to meet squarely and decide the question whether the like power over inter-State commerce is also exclusive, yet that doctrine has been uniformly announced by all the great judges of the national school—Marshall, Story, Wayne, and others—and has only been denied by some judges who belonged to the State-sovereignty school of politicians and jurists. Finally, as the entire court concurred in the broad principle which lies at the basis of the recent decision, we may well assume that the doctrine of the exclusive power of Congress to regulate inter-State as well as foreign commerce must be regarded as settled beyond the possibility of change. We thus discover the only possible wrong premise from which by the most perfect logic

such monstrous conclusions have been drawn—and that is the assumption that the measures we have described are, within the meaning of the Constitution, regulations of commerce.

FRENCH HOME LIFE.

PARIS, January 19, 1874.

LISTENING at doors, though it is one of the most frequent expedients of the dramatists, is hardly ever, I suppose, practised in ordinary life; and the very idea of it makes one somewhat uncomfortable. I experience a feeling which is not much dissimilar whenever I read the remarks of a foreigner on my own country. It seems as if I had no right to know his inner thoughts on such a question, as if I were indiscreet in overhearing what was not intended for myself. "French Home Life," which I had read first in *Blackwood's Magazine* and which has recently been reprinted in a volume,* is a picture which can perhaps better be judged by anybody but a Frenchman, if we must believe the old Greek proverb, which intimates that nothing is so difficult as to know one's self. I began the book with some reluctance, but as I went on I felt that our judge was our friend, that he had lived much among us, and had been able to overcome many of his first prejudices. There is a tone of sympathy in his work which makes even criticism more acceptable, and a power of observation which goes under the surface and sees the real man, the true instincts, the inner fibre of the race. The profusion of details, which astonishes at first, was a necessity; it is quite clear that the author knew the difficulty of his subject, and felt that he must say a great deal in order to teach his readers a little.

Nothing is so easy as caricature; it is the lowest form of art. I saw only yesterday for the first time the piece of Sardou on American manners called "Uncle Sam"; and at the end of the third act, I had had enough of it. I had myself been on the steamers of the Hudson, in the drawing-rooms of Fifth Avenue, and though I recognized in the piece of Sardou some traits of American life, they were so grossly distorted that the picture was simply ridiculous. We find the same spirit of exaggeration sometimes even in the works of genius; see, for instance, in Hogarth, what his type of a Frenchman was; read in Goldwin Smith what he thinks of the "Kelt"; it is always a necessity for the artist or the writer to generalize, and all generalization is more or less defective. The author of "French Home Life" has, at any rate, been very conscientious, and his book is so rich in details that the result is a good approximation to the truth.

His chapter on "Language" is very interesting, and it is perhaps the greatest eulogy which can be passed upon the French nation to say that it stands with the Greeks, the Romans, the English, among the nations which have made their language immortal. The tide of conquest may sweep many times from the Rhine to the Pyrenees; Paris may some day be visited by Americans who will admire the ruins of the Arc de Triomphe: the time will never come when the beauty of the French language will fade away; and if there is, as there must be, a deep relation between the thought and the forms of thought, the race which out of the idioms of Caesar and of Clovis formed the idiom of Rabelais, of Pascal, of Racine, of Bossuet, of Voltaire, will always be a fit object of study for all philosophical minds. I confess that I have what may almost be called a tender admiration for our writers, especially those of the seventeenth century. It has been said that the housemaids of that time wrote like princesses; and it is literally true. The French language under Louis XIV. was, like a young adult, come to its full development, to the age when every movement implies an easy force, when grace and energy combine, when a sort of Hellenic harmony is obtained by nature. Let us not believe that all France was then made up of courtiers; the state, in the figure of a king, was omnipotent, surrounded with glory and majesty; but there was still a remnant of the passions of the civil wars, of the Fronde. Condé, when he was on duty at Versailles, offered to the King *la chemise*; but he was still the hero of Rocroy, of Sens, of Fribourg; and in Chantilly he lived in the familiarity of La Bruyère, of Bossuet, and many others. Read the letters of Mademoiselle de La Vallière on the "Divine Mercy"; she was a victim of royal love, but when repentance entered her heart she wrote pages worthy of St. Augustine. Was La Bruyère a courtier? and Pascal? and Saint-Simon, though he always lived at court? The society of the Hôtel Rambouillet, the society of Fénelon, of the Duc de Montausier, of those virtuous men who dreamt of making of the young Duc de Bourgogne the type of a Christian king, was perhaps the purest, the most delicate and refined model of manners that the world ever has seen.

It is much to the credit of the author of "French Home Life" that under the surface of fashion and of Parisian levity he has discovered the pure springs of family affection which have always existed in France. Let us take a

living example: Marshal MacMahon, who is now our President, has a sick boy, who is probably incurable. Those who see him at Versailles, or at the Elysée, surrounded by generals and diplomats, little suspect that when he has a free evening his greatest pleasure, as well as his wife's, is to spend a few quiet hours with the sickly boy. Our author is somewhat hard on French boys, and I confess that the education given by the University is not what I should prefer. Our lay professors are the successors of the clerical professors of old times, but they have not the spirit of devotion which religion gives. They are didactic and scholastic; their discipline is monastic. The boys in the colleges are under the authority of men whom they know to take no real interest in them; they naturally become their enemies instead of being their friends. The first reform that ought to be made in our colleges is the suppression of what is called the *internat*. I hate these big colleges, where the boys never see a woman, and enjoy no liberty. They ought to be allowed to live in the houses of the professors; but the University, instead of encouraging a system which would place the young men in the common circumstances of life, forbids the teachers to take pupils at home. Much of the hypocrisy, of the bashfulness which our author justly condemns, is owing to the monastic life of the Lycées more than to the instincts of the race; and I could find no better proof of it than the eulogy which he passes upon the French girls, who are educated at home. It may be said, also, that in all countries the genus *boy* is somewhat hateful, much more, at any rate, than the genus girl. And the reason is obvious: nature's instincts, which are by necessity rude and brutal, appear with more force in the masculine sex, and are only slowly subdued by reason and by culture.

The author finds much fault with what he almost calls the hypocrisy of the men. He says that there is a terrible discordance between their courtesy of manners and their real feelings; that people who smile on each other speak very harshly of each other as soon as they find an opportunity. He evidently prefers the haughty and defiant demeanor of the Saxon. He goes so far as to say: "When men, after bowing to the ground, and employing all the delicacies of speech, of compliment, all the flatteries of form, abuse each other directly they have parted, they can scarcely expect lookers-on to regard them or their manners with much confidence now that their other public doings partake of the same logical unreality. It is almost refreshing to observe, and the fact should be insisted on as a hopeful sign, that in certain cases simplicity, naturalness, and even a shade of roughness are coming into use." I might almost exclaim here, seeing that we are complimented on our increasing roughness, as Madame Dudeffaud did when she heard of some cruel trait: "Voilà qui est bien anglais!" I hope that we shall not merit this compliment too much. After all, when you make an exception for certain profound and real affections, life is almost completely spent in conventions; and the convention of courtesy is decidedly more agreeable than the convention of roughness; for there is convention also in roughness, and your kind gentleman, who has in reality the greatest desire to please and to be useful, is affected when he assumes an educated coldness and roughness. I will say more: French gentleness only takes the form of obsequiousness, and is only hypocritical, in what is called society; in the people, it is thoroughly genuine. There is nothing you cannot obtain from the French man or woman with gentleness: is this a defect or a virtue? Who will tell? Must we despise or ought we to pity Racine, who could not console himself for the coldness of Louis XIV.? A French servant is more apt to become discouraged if you seem to forget him and become too distant than if you overwhelm him with work. All the officers of the army will tell you that they must treat their men with gentleness in order to be better obeyed. You cannot enter a shop in Paris without being struck by the urbanity of the people.

Our author has really told the truth when he insists that you find in the French race a profound feeling of humanity. Of course you will find here, as do you everywhere, ostentation and envy and vulgarity; but if one thing can be said of the French more to their credit than another, it is that centuries of civilization have not destroyed the honest feelings of human nature. I don't expect, and I have no right to expect, every man to become a martyr for my sake, and it would not be safe to apply daily the tests of profound affection; but it makes life very pleasant to find always and everywhere open countenances, good humor, courteous manners, an evident desire to please. It is a pleasure for me, one of those *petits bonheurs* which, by their addition, contribute somewhat to real happiness, to see when I pass before my porter's lodge an old soldier, who has been under the fire of Sebastopol and of Solferino, patting the back of his favorite cat; it is a *petit bonheur*, when I enter my tobacco-shop, to see the little girl jump and tell me, with smiling eyes, "Here, sir, is your favorite box"; when I enter my café, to have the *garçon* come with alacrity, "Here, sir, is the new *Revue des Deux Mondes*—I have kept it for you." I prefer this *garçon*, with his white apron, to the splendid flunkies who gape at the door of my club, and

* "French Home Life." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

who try to look as English as they can. When I go out shooting with a great party, I like to talk to some old gamekeeper, or to a beater, who is an old acquaintance, and I learn more from them than a close acquaintance with the manners of birds or deer. I enjoy the conversation of the true natural man, who sees a man in me, and not a gentleman.

The chapter of our author on servants is rather severe: I have been in London, and know what the servant question is there. We are obliged to lodge our servants in the attic, it is true, but many English servants sleep in very unhealthy basements. The servants in Paris stay nearly the whole day in the apartments, and only go to their rooms at night. There they are independent, and this independence has some dangers. But to be independent even for an hour in a small room in an attic is also a comfort, and of this independence our servants are very jealous. I should never dream of entering one of my servants' rooms, and I consider that, once there, they are out of my power. They have there a miniature home. I could praise highly enough some servants whom it has been my privilege to keep for years. They are models of honesty, of willingness, of courtesy; we expect generally from them a perfection which they do not find in us, and, what is more surprising, we sometimes find this perfection.

On the whole, the author of 'French Home Life' has done a good work in analyzing, with justice, the principal features of French society. He has done full justice to some of the virtues of the people, and these virtues, which have always been found in the soldier, will some day allow France to retake a place in Europe which she has but momentarily lost. The French are very fond of abusing themselves; it is perhaps time that they should cease to do so, and should cease furnishing arms to their inveterate enemies. They must, at any rate, be grateful to a foreigner who has disdained to use these arms.

Correspondence.

STATIGRAPHIC ILLUSTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention was called by a friend in England to your mention, December 4, of the Second Biennial Report of the Illinois Board of Public Charities, and I desire to express my pleasure at your implied approval of the "statigraphic charts" which accompany it.

The principle of these charts is, so far as I am aware, entirely new; or, at least, it is a novel development and application of the familiar *single line* used to express statistical facts to the eye, as, for instance, the fluctuations in the price of gold. Possibly a somewhat fuller account of the charts and of the method of their construction may interest a portion of your readers.

The total number of insane persons in the United States, as reported in the census of 1860, was 24,046, of whom 11,849 were males and 12,197 were females. In 1870, the number reported was 37,382—males 18,174, and females 19,208. Since the ages of the insane, as well as the sex, are given in the census, it is an easy matter to calculate the per cent. of the entire number (24,046 in 1860, or 37,382 in 1870) of either sex, in each of the decades of life. Such a calculation gives us, as the result, the following table:

DECADE.	PER CENT. OF THE ENTIRE NUMBER.			
	MALE.		FEMALE.	
	In 1860.	In 1870.	In 1860.	In 1870.
Over 100 years.....	001	001	001	001
" 80 and 90.....	005	005	007	007
" 70 and 80.....	017	019	021	024
" 60 and 70.....	039	041	048	048
" 50 and 60.....	064	065	076	076
" 40 and 50.....	102	100	110	114
" 30 and 40.....	126	122	120	123
" 20 and 30.....	102	100	092	092
" 10 and 20.....	029	028	026	025
Under 10 years.....	007	005	006	004
Total.....	492	486	507	514

An examination of these figures is very instructive. But it is evident that the publication of a series of tables, constructed on the same plan, for the United States, and for each one of the States in detail, showing the distribution, not only of insanity, but also of idiocy, blindness, and deaf-mutism, in each of the two years 1860 and 1870, would subserve no very useful purpose. Such tables might interest professional statisticians, but to all others they would be simply meaningless; and even a professional statistician cannot arrive at the signification of a series of tabulated statements without protracted mental effort, nor even then can he derive from such statements anything more than a general conception. The mind cannot retain the details of which the whole is composed, and life is too short to be expended, by any but a very few, in complicated mathematical computations.

Hence the horror and disgust which most men feel for statistics.

But if statistics can be converted into diagrams, the eye grasps and readily retains the visible figure, however difficult in comparison the retention of the abstract numbers on which the visible figure is based.

To illustrate this thought: what are the field-notes of surveyors but statistical tables of directions, departures, and distances? Suppose that all our geographical knowledge were embodied in large and costly publications of the original field-notes filed in our State and National capitals; how many geographers would the country boast? and how much would the most eminent geographer really know? Is it not evident that, for the development and popularization of statistics, a step needs to be taken similar to that taken by the science of geography, when field-notes were first converted into maps? And how great the need of this step, since the *science* of society depends for its development and demonstration on these very statistics, now so despised, because so difficult of comprehension!

The statigraphic charts in the Illinois Charity Report are a contribution to the visible illustration of abstract numerical calculations.

I have taken a perpendicular base line to divide the male unfortunates from the females, placing the males on the left and the females on the right. Across this line, and at right angles to it, and at equal distances from each other, I have drawn eleven horizontal lines, to represent the various decades of life. Upon these horizontal lines I have measured distances corresponding to the per cent. of the total number of each given age and sex. I have then joined the points thus obtained, and so have found what I term a typical figure, revealing to the eye at a single glance the law which governs the distribution of each of the four varieties of misfortune enumerated above, both by age and sex.

The result of this labor, carried to the extent of calculating and constructing the figures for insanity, idiocy, blindness, and deaf-mutism, in each State separately and in the United States as a whole, may be summed up in the following general conclusions:

First. The errors of all sorts in the collection and record of statistical facts are of no consequence whatever, so far as the revelation of the law embodied in them is in question, provided that they are not gathered from an insufficient area or in insufficient quantity.

Second. All statistics of sufficient amount do embody a law capable of formulation and expression, and if this law were known, the collection of statistics would no longer be necessary.

Third. Social facts, no less than physical, are subject to law—if that be a correct philosophical expression. Their relations are as uniform, as constant, and as universal as the relations of material and inanimate nature.

The entire series of charts prepared by me has been purchased and will be published by the United States Government, in connection with the statistical atlas now in preparation by Gen. F. A. Walker, and will, I think, demonstrate the truth of the three propositions just stated.

The conversion of statistics into visible form upon a large scale, in some simple way, easily intelligible by persons of average intellect, is an event greatly to be desired. I venture to predict that it is an event not very far distant, and that the time will come, sooner or later, when the elementary principles of statistics will become a part of the common-school curriculum.

Respectfully,

FRED. H. WINES.

STATE OF ILLINOIS BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES,
SECRETARY'S OFFICE, SPRINGFIELD, ILL., JAN. 19, 1874.

[Since the above was received, we have examined Charts XLIII. and XLIV. of Gen. Walker's forthcoming Atlas, and can testify to the very great value of this form of statistical representation.—
ED. NATION.]

Notes.

POTT, YOUNG & CO. announce for speedy publication 'The Art-Teaching of the Primitive Church,' with an index of subjects, historical and emblematic, by the Rev. R. St. John Tyrwhitt; also a 'History of the Jewish Nation,' from the earliest times to the present day, by E. H. Palmer, M.A., with numerous illustrations.—A selection from the letters of the late Joseph Green Cogswell, forming a narrative of his life, is in preparation, and two hundred copies for private circulation will be printed at the Riverside Press. The shape will be quarto, and the price \$5. Subscriptions may be forwarded to Mr. George S. Hillard, 62 Pinckney Street, Boston.—Mr. Edward Eggleston's 'Circuit Rider,' and Dr. Edward Beecher's 'History of Opinions on the Scriptural Doctrine of Retribution,' are announced by J. B. Ford & Co.—A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish 'Songs of Praise,' containing over 1,400 hymns of all ages and communions, the literary edi-

tors being Rev. Drs. Hitchcock, Eddy, and Schaff, and the musical editor Prof. John K. Paine.—Roberts Bros. will publish a translation of Prosper Mérimée's 'Lettres à une Inconnue.'—The London *Spectator* thinks that it has discovered in the story, "Far From the Madding Crowd," now being published in the *Cornhill Magazine* and in *Every Saturday*, an anonymous story by "George Eliot," and assigns reasons for its belief. The *Spectator's* gift of seeing into millstones is well known and uncontested. Whatever the authorship, the goodness of the story, so far as it has yet gone, is beyond doubt. It is a long time since there has been anything like it in English fiction, for it is as new and taking as "Under the Greenwood Tree," and wise with a wisdom which the clever author of that tale has not yet reached.—On Saturday the American Academy of Arts and Sciences elected Mr. Darwin an honorary member.—J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Public Men and Events from the Commencement of Mr. Monroe's Administration, in 1817, to the Close of Mr. Fillmore's Administration, in 1853,' by Nathan Sargent.

—We notice a small error of fact in the first of Mr. Whittier's series of historical articles just begun in the *Atlantic Monthly*. In the account of the Anti-slavery Convention held in Philadelphia, in 1833, one of the delegates, who is referred to as the youngest, is set down as a Presbyterian clergyman from Columbia. He was, however, at that time merely a student for the ministry in the Presbyterian Church, and was from Carlisle, an old Pennsylvania town close to the slave border, and about the least likely place in the world, in those days, to produce a delegate to an anti-slavery convention. The student condition of the delegate in question comports better with the fact, which Mr. Whittier is careful to state, that the convention was made up chiefly of young men.

—Those of our readers who are at all curious about Japan will be interested to hear of an illustrated journal, the *Far East*, which is published monthly at Yokohama. Each number contains twenty-four pages of printed matter, about the early history of the country, for example, and also a great deal of local news. More valuable, however, are the six or eight full-page photographs in each number of the magazine. These are admirably taken, and the subjects are chosen with really uncommon taste. Instead of views of the new streets and warehouses, we have groups of the Japanese at their own employments, listening to fortune-tellers, watching mountebanks, at work in the field, etc., etc. The four numbers we have before us (those from July to October, both inclusive, of last year) we suppose may be taken as very good samples of the work, and they are interesting enough to warrant a warm recommendation of this means of collecting photographs of a rapidly disappearing phase of civilization. The price of this magazine is \$15 per year in advance. Subscriptions are received at the office of the *Japan Gazette*, Yokohama.

—Undergraduate collegians are not as a rule distinguished for the wisdom of their associated action, and of this fact the late convention in regard to the intercollegiate regatta appears to have given a fresh illustration. A good deal of heartburning among the young men, and a decided doubt among the older friends of the collegians, appear to have sprung up as regards several things done by the convention. The choice of the course is the principal cause of the doubt and of the dissatisfaction, though there are several other causes too. The lake at Saratoga was selected as the place of meeting. It is felt that the transfer of the scene of an honorable contest among young gentlemen, from a convenient and quiet New England town to a town with the reputation of Saratoga—and the Saratoga not only of fashion, but of Morrissey and horse-racing—is appreciably to degrade the character of the contest and to lessen by a good deal the interest felt in it. The Saratogians made no secret of their wish to see the transfer made; they sent on a delegation of their citizens, who made large offers—offers which plainly declared that the race was to be made into a spectacle for a crowd of fashionable people, hardly at all interested in the colleges; a stop-gap for the gamblers and turf-men till the horse-racing should give them a new chance for betting their money, and another attraction to keep the hotels full enough to satisfy the gentlemanly landlords. At the best there is something low about all this; and at the worst, there is something in other respects very questionable. Another cause of dissatisfaction is the exhibition of a tendency to make of the race something of "a splurge," instead of an unassuming and businesslike trial of skill and strength between amateurs. There is already even a proposal that there shall be as side-shows to the great performance intercollegiate trials of undergraduate skill and strength in literature and oratory, eminent experts in those branches of labor being made the umpires in this latter struggle, and plenty of them no doubt being perfectly willing to serve, and to serve without compensation. Doubtless there is justification for a faculty's permitting its students to row in races and to play ball-matches, though we must say we think playing with professional ball-men should be strictly prohibited.

—The Chicago *Tribune* has recently been reviving some stirring memories. It speaks of the latest vicissitude of fortune undergone by the sword which Byron wore at Missolonghi, and which is now in Chicago. There it narrowly escaped destruction in the great fire, and was one of the only four things saved by the lady who owned it—herself, a small box of plate, a shawl which she threw over her head, and the historic sword. She is a descendant of the late Col. Jonathan Miller of Montpelier, Vermont, who, in the heat of youthful enthusiasm for classical and Christian Greece oppressed by the barbarian Mussulmans, left his studies in college to go out with the well-known Doctor S. G. Howe of Boston. Byron gave the sword to a native Greek officer who fell in the action where Marco Bozzaris also lost his life, and it was found knotted to his wrist as he lay dead on the field of battle. The heirs of this officer sold it to Mr. Miller, who brought it to this country, and with it, by the bye, two sons of a Madame Miltiades who asserted herself to be a direct descendant of the Miltiades who commanded at Marathon. Both these young gentlemen in due time became, and as we make out the story still are, citizens of the United States and legal voters. Colonel Miller is said to have used his sword to some purpose in the last and greatest siege of Missolonghi, when, the Turkish commander having battered the town into a heap of ruins, the defenders accomplished a most desperate feat. Placing their women and children in the middle of a dense column of the garrison, they cut their way through the Turkish camp to the mountains, and to the number of two thousand escaped. Among these was Colonel Miller. This was at midnight of April 22, 1826. When on the following day the Turks entered the town, they found the sick, the wounded, and such others of the inhabitants as were for any reason incapacitated for the forced march and the fight, gathered together in an old mill, which, when a large number of the enemy had entered it, was blown into the air by its defenders.

—The friends of the Academy at Annapolis have good reason to be pleased with the last 'Annual Register.' It shows that, within the past two years, a decided improvement has taken place in the institution. This improvement consists less in the addition of new studies—of which, indeed, we perceive no indication—than in the changing of text-books and methods of instruction in the old branches of study. As one change of method, we may remark that monthly examinations have been introduced generally throughout the course, and that there has been a gradual doing away with recitation marks in the two upper classes. Still another change may be noticed in the department of English—the department which the Academy has principally to rely upon for culture, and as to which we learn that two years ago the instruction consisted in a simple drill, memoriter, on 'Bullions's Grammar,' 'Quackenbos's Rhetoric,' or rather book of Composition, and Eliot's and Worcester's school histories. At present, the course, as laid out, includes the use of Seeley & Abbott's 'English Lessons,' Tancoek's 'English Grammar and Reading-Book,' Hart's 'Rhetoric,' Freeman's 'Outlines of History,' Eliot's 'History of the United States,' Ansted's 'Physical Geography,' Mitchell's 'Ancient Atlas,' Johnson's 'Historical Atlas,' Appleton's 'Modern Atlas,' Kent's 'Commentaries on the Constitution,' lectures on history, and analytical readings of classical English authors. This, it will be seen, is better than was to have been expected. We should say that the atlases—which ought to be an especially strong point in the Annapolis curriculum—are about the weakest spot in it; though we are not familiar with Johnson's 'Historical Atlas,' and it may be good. Every wise man's son, however, in the absence of definite knowledge about an atlas, readily admits a doubt of its excellence. Of the 'Register' in general we may say that besides full lists of the officers and students, it supplies specimens of examination-papers, both those of admission and those given out during the course, and a circular-letter, very sensible and vigorous, written by Mr. Gideon Welles, and addressed to candidates for admission as cadets. As Mr. Welles is no longer Secretary of the Navy and the superior officer of the cadet, and as our remarks will therefore not be an incitement to mutiny nor tend to bring commanding officers into contempt, we shall say that capital as the circular is, it has some old-fashioned phrases now no longer much used by sea or land except by the poets: "Launch the terrific thunder of his broadsides" is one such. But doubtless there is not a young Midshipman or Cadet Engineer of the whole two hundred and eighty who will not be a better man, seaman, and officer for the reading of the letter.

—Professor Goldwin Smith has for the second time publicly announced that, to his personal knowledge, "Americans hate England." He is also of opinion that this hatred is stronger in the East than in the West. How to settle a question of this nature it is very difficult to tell. Plump and plain contradiction is perhaps as good a way as any, so Mr. Phineas T. Barnum comes out in the English papers with a negative to Professor Smith's affirmative, and says that, on the contrary, Americans are fond of Englishmen. Great crowds of

British Evangelical Alliance clergymen sustain him. Gen. Neal Dow—most Eastern of Eastern men—not long ago said the same thing as the great moral showman. Professor Tyndall also, who but a while since left these shores, corroborates Mr. Barnum. He quotes several speeches made at a banquet given him in this city at his departure. Indeed, but for exacerbating the controversy by enlisting our New York press in it, he might have quoted from speeches given him on his arrival as well as on his departure, and avowed a belief that, were an English ticket-of-leave man to come over to New York, he would find rival tug-boats from our two literary and journalistic clubs waiting off Sandy Hook to offer him a reception. He did not, however; but he cited the testimony of Mr. Wm. M. Evarts, Dr. J. W. Draper, and President Andrew White of Cornell, all of whom made remarks of the kind usual at banquets, and perhaps partaking of the nature of a hollow mockery, but perhaps, too, expressive of an entirely sincere feeling. Mr. Tyndall adds his own personal testimony; but as the question is not of American hatred of Irishmen, Professor Tyndall's attempt at this point is zealous and praiseworthy rather than conclusive. As we imagine, there is both truth and falsehood in Mr. Smith's assertion; it was much truer forty years ago or twenty years ago than it is now; and it is truer to-day than it will be twenty years hence. England is somewhat disliked, or "hated," by many Americans; but, again, England is much liked, even "loved," by many Americans, and this cannot be said in any such sense of the word about any other European nation. We are, formally, very fond of the Russians; in reality, we do not care two straws for Russia. We are supposed to be traditionally fond of the French, and so we are; that did not, however, prevent us from giving the vast bulk of our sympathy to the Germans all through the Franco-German war. Blood simply was thicker than water, as Commodore Tatnall once said. Everywhere in contact and competition with England; closely related to her, whether we will or not; contemned with a frightened and uneasy contempt by certain classes of Englishmen, it is nevertheless true that there is a great and growing radical good-will and good esteem on the part of Americans towards England and the English, and we dare say on the part of Englishmen towards Americans. We shall not suffocate each other with embraces, no doubt; but we do not hate each other half so dreadfully as some Englishmen and some Americans would be willing to have us hate each other.

—The *Revue des Deux Mondes* for the first of January contains an interesting article by M. Emile Burnouf on the recent explorations in the Troad conducted by Dr. Schliemann. As we are now living in the nineteenth century after Christ, we may say that for more than three thousand years mankind has been interested in the discovery of the site of ancient Troy, and M. Burnouf notices the fact that the interest in the matter has taken very different shapes at different times. In the classical periods of Greece and Rome there was a tradition on the subject which placed the ancient Ilium on the high ground or hill situated in the Troad, and known now by the Turkish name of Hissarlik. In those days tradition was sufficient, and investigation was not thought of. In modern times investigation was carried on till very recently only by topographical means—i.e., by a comparison of the surface of the ground with the names of persons and places mentioned in the Homeric poems. This method, however, led to nothing positive, and gradually, with the spread of the study of comparative mythology, doubts began to be expressed by many persons as to the entire tradition. The sacred poems of India offer striking analogies with those of Homer. It is not difficult to persuade one's self in reading the *Iliad* that the events narrated in it are all fictitious, and all really mythological in character; Achilles typifying the sun, Helen one of the names of the moon, and each one of the epic figures finding its explanation in some natural phenomenon. "The Trojan war reduced itself to a struggle between the elements. The fact of the expedition once out of the way, the city itself had no longer any reason for existing, and Troy became an ideal acropolis, like those which appear often in the Vedas, and which are nothing but clouds." There was only one method left, and that was excavation, and excavation was begun as long ago as 1844. A number of places in the Troad were selected by different explorers, but they came to nothing, and at length the plain of Troy had been so thoroughly explored that only two localities remained about which there was any doubt—Bounar-Bachi and Hissarlik. Bounar-Bachi was explored (partly by Dr. Schliemann himself), and Hissarlik alone remained. In order to understand the exact position of this Hissarlik, we may quote M. Burnouf: "The traveller who goes from Smyrna to Constantinople by the Channel of Lesbos notices, the moment he is out of it, stretching before him in the direction of east to west, a long shore ending towards the west in a promontory. This is the Troad. The traveller turns to the left to reach the cape, again to the right to double it, and a second shore, longer than the first, stretches in front of him toward the north. Coasting along it for some twelve leagues, he enters the Dardanelles, formerly the

Hellespont. Continuing his journey, he has left on his left the Isle of Tenedos, and on his right the Bay of Béchika. . . . Above the very low shore of this bay he perceives a height having the outline of a sort of acropolis, and which now goes by the name of Hissarlik. . . . Down to the commencement of the second century before Christ, all Greek antiquity placed Troy at Hissarlik. Here, indeed, later than the Trojan war, had been established a Greek colony bearing the name of Ilium, and going as far back at least as the seventh century. The ancient tradition is attested by Herodotus, by Xenophon, Arrian, Plutarch, Justin, and even Strabo, who admits a different opinion."

—Dr. Schliemann's excavations at Hissarlik, began in the month of April, 1870, and ended last summer. In these three years he has discovered more than all previous explorers had done since the burning of Troy. At the depth of 16 metres (about 58 feet) he reached the virgin soil—the rock—and in this space he discovered traces of five, or possibly six, different periods of habitation. "The oldest is of an antiquity extremely great. The second, which consists of ashes and burnt earths, bears throughout the traces of great conflagrations." In this are houses built of raw bricks, the whole powerfully fortified with a wall of circumvallation, and containing an altar to Minerva, and, more remarkable still, the ruins of a palace which was evidently the habitation of a rich and powerful *seigneur*. The third layer, which is of earth, encloses houses made of stones held together by mud. The case is the same in the fourth. Above this a very thin layer contains vases that seem to be of Lydian production. "The brick layer is first archaic Greek, then Hellenic '*des bonnes époques*,' then Græco-Roman, and finally Imperial"—i.e., the objects found in this layer disclose three successive periods. It is the second layer, of course, which is supposed to be that of ancient Troy; the palace which Dr. Schliemann unearthed being, on this theory, Priam's, as well as the royal treasure found, which was apparently thrown away in the flight from the burning palace. M. Burnouf evidently inclines to the belief that it is indeed the Troy of Homer which has been so strangely unearthed, though he thinks the question not positively settled. But it would be greatly belittling the discoveries of Dr. Schliemann to suppose that their value depends on this point. Their immense importance depends on the fact that in the twenty thousand objects—houses, vases, ornaments, weapons, tools, etc.—discovered and collected by Dr. Schliemann, we have records which carry us back to the very childhood of the world. No one can yet say what strange and new light these discoveries will throw on the speculations of mythologists, ethnologists, and indeed of all scientific men. M. Burnouf, who has examined the collection at Dr. Schliemann's request, and is himself one of the half-dozen men in the world who are really Homeric experts, has been we may almost say startled by the magnitude of the discoveries. What they really are time and study can alone prove. Dr. Schliemann is publishing a book, with a descriptive catalogue of his museum.

—Some remarks worthy of notice upon popular customs in Upper Bavaria are furnished by Felix Dahn to the last three numbers of *Im Neuen Reich* for 1873 (Nos. 50, 51, 52). Dahn has had exceptional opportunities to become acquainted with the customs of the peasantry of the district, as it was to him that the Emperor Maximilian II., fifteen years ago, when the ethnological work 'Bavaria' was undertaken, entrusted the description of the life of the peasantry of Upper and Lower Bavaria. The Emperor put at Dahn's disposal the manuscript material, in a dozen stout folio volumes, which had been collected and given to the crown by the deceased Josef Lentner. Dahn speaks further as a native of Bavaria who was able to add from his own knowledge to the collection of his predecessor. The object of his articles—with the title '*Altgermanisches Heidenthum im süddeutschen Volksleben der Gegenwart*'—is to exhibit the remains of the customs of the ancient heathen inhabitants of Bavaria in existent popular customs, especially in ecclesiastical usages, the consecration of bread and of candles, Twelfth-Night ceremonies, the observance of the 6th of November (the feast-day of St. Leonard, the patron of horses), and other ceremonies, in all of which processions of heathen origin play an important part. Dahn's remarks apply chiefly to the rustic population of the southeastern part of Upper Bavaria. The institution of a Christmas-tree has been known to this region only about thirty years; its introduction by Protestant families from the North of Germany has lessened in the cities the attention paid to the 6th of December, when St. Nicholas and his servant Ruprecht were wont to be honored. With less claim to originality, but of interest, is Heinrich Köstlin's article in No. 1 of the same journal for 1874 on '*Deutsches Leben im Volksgesange der Reformationszeit*.' The custom of stationing a watchman with a horn on a tower to give signal of danger or to sound the hours—a custom still observed in Tübingen and in Krailsheim in Würtemberg—was a step for the wandering minstrel from disrepute to a more stable and reputable life, while

the popular air, sounded officially, took on a sacred character. The article describes further the sentiments of various songs popular in the sixteenth century, and speaks of some sacred melodies in connection with their popular originals.

UPHAM'S LIFE OF PICKERING.*

IT is with genuine satisfaction that the public will receive the concluding volumes of the 'Life of Timothy Pickering,' which had appeared indefinitely suspended by reason of the death of Mr. Octavius Pickering. The completion of the work could not have been put in better hands, for Mr. Upham is at once an intimate friend of the family who has done his work *con amore*; an accomplished writer who has given these volumes a much more varied and lively character than the first; and a gentleman of literary and political experience, well fitted to describe a life so varied and striking. The ability with which the work has been performed gives it an eminent place among biographies, and secures to its author a permanent literary reputation.

Timothy Pickering stands very high among statesmen of the second rank—those who did excellent and indispensable service in their generation, but who have not stamped their names prominently upon history. His biographer, at the end of the third volume, on the occasion of his dismissal from President Adams's cabinet, enters into a somewhat elaborate comparison of the two men who thus parted company, from which it might almost be inferred that he regards them as standing about on an equality. Such comparisons are useful, not, however, so much for determining the relative rank of the parties, as their individual worth; but at any rate the decisive consideration in this case is that the judgment of the world has accepted Adams as one of its great men, while Pickering is well-nigh forgotten, except by special students of this period. The difference between them is, after all, the indefinable one of genius. Mr. Pickering's career was a remarkable one, and one which, even if he did not leave his stamp upon the history of the world, exerted great influence in the early development of the nation. His various spheres of activity are summed up in the fourth volume, page 314. In the State government of Massachusetts he served one term in the General Court, and one term as a member of the Executive Council, occupying many official positions besides: "several military and civil commissions, Judge of Admiralty, Judge and Chief-Justice for many years of the Court of Common Pleas, member of the Commission for Sea-Coast Defence, and of the Board of War in the War of 1812." In town affairs from 1771 to the war: "Town Clerk, all along on the Board of Selectmen, for the most time its chairman; Assessor, Fireward, Overseer of the Poor, and in whatever post his extraordinary activity and industry were seen to qualify him pre-eminently to occupy." Moreover:

"In the war of the Revolution; in various services in Pennsylvania; in Indian missions, negotiations, and treaties; in the cabinets of Washington and Adams (as Secretary of War and of State, besides having been Postmaster-General); in both Houses of Congress, his life was a long-protracted and diversified, as well as important, arduous, and conspicuous political and civil service, embracing from 1771 to 1818, forty-seven years. In its length it is, perhaps, without a parallel; and considering the amount of labor performed, the elevation and responsibility of the area included in the range of his official duties, the strange perils and adventures of Wyoming, and the extreme vicissitudes of his experience—high public positions alternating with laborious toils, the ceremonies of courts with the condition of a hard-working farmer; at one moment conducting, as chief officer of state, the intercourse of the nation with foreign ambassadors; the next, building with his own hands, as a shelter and abode, a log-hut in the primeval wilderness; and the next, occupying a seat in the Senate of the United States—his story has no equal in the biographies of the great men of the country."

The episode of the life and adventures in Wyoming is peculiarly interesting. It is narrated chiefly in Mr. Pickering's own words, and gives a graphic picture of frontier life in the years directly after the Revolution. It may be doubted whether similar outrages to those recorded here would pass with so little bloodshed if they occurred at the present day in the backwoods of Kansas or Minnesota; on the other hand, it is doubtful whether the most corrupt State legislature of the present day would venture upon such deliberate breach of faith as that of which Pennsylvania was guilty upon this occasion. Mr. Pickering's second backwoods enterprise, after his dismissal from Mr. Adams's cabinet, was more toilsome, but had a more satisfactory close. The whole affair is in the highest degree creditable to the actors in it. Col. Pickering, finding himself with very little ready money, but with a large quantity of wild land in the north-easterly part of Pennsylvania, became a settler, built himself a cabin, and cleared a farm, with a view to permanent residence. His friends in Massachusetts, unwilling to lose him from public life, and being unable to persuade him to give up this enterprise, reached their end by indirect means. They formed a company, with three hundred and thirty-three shares (of which he retained eighty-three in his own hands), which took off his hands ten tracts of land, consisting of about

twenty thousand acres, for the sum of \$33,300. With the proceeds he was able to buy a farm near Salem, upon which he spent the rest of his life. This was regarded by him as a pure business transaction. The purchasers, however, were so far from looking upon it in this light that, after holding the lands for about four years, they conveyed them, as a free gift, to the widow and children of Alexander Hamilton, for whom a fund was raised after Hamilton's death. The list of shareholders in this noble undertaking, thirty-five in number (Vol. IV., p. 23), is made up of names so familiar in Boston and Salem as Cabot, Davis, Parsons, Lee, Lyman, Perkins, Higginson, Williams, Orne, Thorndike, Gray, Booth, Sears, Lowell, and others.

Some of the most valuable portions of the book are those which treat of the Constitutional questions which came up during Mr. Pickering's political life, especially that to which the attention of our people is now directed anew—the mode of election of the President. An elaborate chapter of the third volume (Chap. III.) is devoted to this discussion, and especially to the proposition of Mr. Hillhouse of Connecticut, that the President should be selected by lot from the number of the outgoing senators. It is not our purpose to discuss this plan—which has more in its favor than strikes one at first sight—any further than to remark that while we should be very sorry to run the risk of having our chief executive taken by chance from a list of names such as would come up under our present political system, it is not impossible that the rule would react in such a way as to place a worthier body of men in the Senate. Two modifications of the plan would seem at any rate requisite: that the list should not comprise the whole body of retiring senators, but should be sifted by some process—say a ballot fixing upon ten names (which would make it essentially the same as the Athenian process of choosing Archons); and secondly, that a seat in the Senate should be held only by persons who have already had a certain amount of political experience, either in the State government or the House of Representatives. A more practical matter, probably, is the account, in the second chapter of the fourth volume, of the passage of the actual amendment upon this subject. We are only too well aware how badly it has worked in practice; it is not generally known how purely partisan an amendment it was, and by how close a vote it was pushed through Congress. The account here is highly instructive. An incident of this same period illustrates the political history of the time, as well as Col. Pickering's sagacity and moral courage. It was upon the question of giving Col. Burr the franking privilege for life. Burr was himself to put the vote in the Senate, as Vice-President, and nobody had ventured to say to his face what his real opinion was. At last, just as the question was about to be put, Mr. Pickering rose. "Burr recognized him—the Senator from Massachusetts"—and sank back into his seat. Their eyes met; neither quailed. The Senate was awed into breathless silence. Colonel Pickering spoke as follows: "Mr. President: Who, sir, are the dangerous men in this Republic? Not those who have reached the summit of place and power, for their ambition is satisfied. I tell you, sir, who are dangerous men. Those who have ascended to the last round *but one* on the political ladder, and whose vaulting ambition will never be satisfied until they have stood upon the topmost round. Sir, I vote against this bill." The bill did not pass (Vol. IV., p. 67). This incident was narrated to the writer by Mr. Hillhouse.

Mr. Upham's volumes abound in personal anecdotes like this—fresh, and well told. Among other things, we have a full account of Mr. Pickering's relations with Mr. Adams. The mystery of his dismissal is not cleared up, but rather enhanced, for it is shown that their relations were perfectly friendly until a very short time before this event, in spite of a few occasions on which they came into collision; and no ground for misunderstanding is shown. It is conjectured (Vol. III., p. 491) "that exaggerated accounts may have reached him [the President] of an intrigue in the Federal party to secure to General Pinckney one or two more electoral votes than for him, and thus make Pinckney President, and degrade him back to the Vice-Presidency"; and that, attributing the scheme to Hamilton, and supposing Pickering to be under Hamilton's influence, "he struck at him, meaning that the blow should tell upon Hamilton, and all in league with him."

Mr. Upham says in the preface to the second volume that "Colonel Pickering attached peculiar importance to his Indian service, his estimate of which was continually heightened by reflection and observation." There are many details given of his negotiations with Indian tribes, and of his views as to the policy to be pursued towards them. "He thought that Indian lads and young men ought, by Government aid, to be induced to come among the whites for education, and not placed in the colleges or higher seminaries; but, receiving only the rudiments of school learning—reading, writing, and arithmetic—be mainly trained to such habits, tastes, knowledge, and arts as would fit them for the occupations and management of farms. . . . The object he aimed at was to break up their wandering, unproductive, and, for the most part, indolent tribal life, and impart to them a stimulus

* 'The Life of Timothy Pickering. By Charles W. Upham.' Vols. II., III., and IV. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1873. 8vo.

to industry, by securing to every man a separate occupancy and possession of land, resting upon a sure and absolute title; in a word, to transform them from roaming hunters into freehold farmers" (Vol. III., p. 84). It would be hard to enumerate all the things in which the influence of this distinguished man can be traced. It was he who proposed the Military Academy at West Point; it was he who selected the names of those first frigates which are so famous in our naval annals—*United States*, *Constitution*, *Constellation*; it was he who organized our Post-Office Department. He was a person of great fertility of resources, with a very clear perception of the relation of means and ends; and in whatever station he was placed, he found some sagacious criticism or practical suggestion to make with regard to its administration. Wherever he had authority, there was no danger of running into excessive routine. Among the special points which deserve mention are the account of the privateer service of the Revolution (II., p. 143), and Mr. Pickering's judicious remarks upon education (II., p. 164; III., p. 165; IV., p. 199). Neither must his agricultural observations and experience be overlooked; they are of constant recurrence and of great value.

ESSAYS BY A PUPIL OF COBDEN.*

PROFESSOR ROGERS'S new volume contains some very valuable discussions upon subjects of the first importance. The essays are ten in number, all marked by vigorous thought and reasoning, although differing considerably in merit. One is surprised in so experienced a writer to find so great a disparity in literary merit. The first three papers we read with great disappointment, on account of the extraordinarily clumsy and obscure style. Take for example this sentence (p. 42), which certainly no one would attribute to an Oxford professor: "It is not difficult to extend the alarm which may be felt at the neglect of those precautions which leave a state defenceless, into advocating the sustentation of those interests which afford a supply the curtailment of which might be attended with inconvenience." In the rest of the essays we find the author's better style, which, however, is never of the first order; even here we meet occasionally a slovenly expression, as for example (p. 137), "it is not two centuries ago, since," etc.

The object of the book is "to define the place which Cobden holds in the political and economical history of this country [England], and to explain the attitude which he took on most of the leading topics of his time." It contains, indeed, much less of Cobden than either the title or these words from the preface would lead one to expect; but we do not know that it is the worse for this. Mr. Rogers discusses every question with entire freedom from his own point of view, referring to his friend from time to time—now for a well-put argument, now for the authority of his name, now even to controvert his views. He considers himself in a sense as Cobden's pupil, so that when he is arguing on his own account he still in the main reproduces Cobden's thoughts and line of reasoning.

The largest share of the volume is taken up with the subject of Free Trade, in the principal part of the essay on the Parliament of 1841, and in those on the Defence of the Corn Laws and Commercial Diplomacy. It is chiefly in these papers that we find the obscurities and inelegances to which we have called attention. The arguments are for the most part such as are familiar; except in that on Commercial Diplomacy (No. 9), which is an interesting and instructive vindication of the part taken by Cobden in negotiating the French Commercial Treaty. The essays upon Financial Reform (No. 6), India and the Colonies (No. 7), and Parliamentary Reform (No. 8), are also largely made up of familiar matter, although they are extremely well put. The essay upon the Land Question (No. 3) is highly instructive but ill-arranged. The best essays are those upon International Relations (No. 4), Military and Naval Expenditure (No. 5), and Education (No. 10). Every one, however, contains excellent points. Take, for instance, this:

"To destroy the House of Peers, as long as the custom of primogeniture and the power of settlement exist, and for two or three generations afterwards (unless, indeed, what every sensible man would deprecate, the great estates were violently broken up and distributed), would be to hand over the constituencies to men of great wealth, and of considerable means for conciliating popularity. As it is, a seat in the House of Lords is a form of dignified ostracism, and, like ostracism, is a means for curtailing the inordinate influence which arises from the accumulation of great wealth and of admitted social position in a few hands" (p. 80).

It will be observed that Professor Rogers says: "custom [rather than law] of primogeniture." An interesting passage upon the nature of entail follows, ending: "I have dwelt on these particulars mainly because in ordinary conversation people speak very loosely of the 'Law of Entail,' as if it were the mechanism by which estates are tied up. The real pro-

cess by which the result is effected is by the form of a strict settlement." In the same essay, p. 89, he remarks, in opposition to the prevailing view that land, like other property, tends to be centralized in a few hands: "The small purchaser in a wealthy or progressive country can always, and always will, outbid the large buyer, if facilities are given for easy transfer."

Perhaps there is no one of these papers which contains so much that will interest our community as the closing one upon Education. We have never met with an abler argument for a purely secular public system of education and against sectarian schools (p. 349):

"It is either the business of the state or of the sects to teach secular knowledge. If it be the business of the state, the functions of the teacher of religion and of the schoolmaster must be separated. The former must have his opportunity for imparting religious knowledge, and will indeed have it, for the temper of the three or four nations included in the United Kingdom is strongly religious, and, apart from the deeper feelings of belief, identifies, and rightly identifies, the religion of the Reformation, and of several successive and internal reformations, with civil liberty and moral progress. There does not then appear to be any reason why persons should be alarmed, as they sometimes on various grounds affect to be alarmed, at the risk which religion may run if the state undertakes the secular instruction of the people; or why they should assert that, if the state teaches secular education, education will be secular. . . . Most of the Christian virtues—diligence, submission, kindness, truthfulness, cleanliness of speech, courtesy, and the like—are part of the essential discipline of a school, and can be ignored in no place of education, however secular may be the teaching conveyed. Now, to expect that zeal for one thing will necessarily and habitually provide another thing, still more that they who long to gather poselytes will effectually undertake the work of a national and universal education, is the simplest of absurdities."

Mr. Rogers is a friend of American institutions, although it must be admitted that he does not admire our protective system, nor our financial system. "The people of America may point with pride to the intelligence with which they have returned to peace, and to the self-devotion with which they have striven to liquidate as rapidly as possible the costs of war" (p. 156). We fear, in the light of the recent insane clamor about Cuba, that he judges republican institutions a little too favorably when he says (p. 125): "It is, I believe, a rule to which no exception occurs, that when perfect political equality is established in any community, and the whole machinery of Government is brought under the control of the popular will and public opinion, war becomes an anachronism and an impossibility. . . . That a free nation should attempt to bring another nation into subjection, or attack it in order to vindicate its honor, is an absurdity." On p. 331 he points out that "in other countries, in France, Germany, the United States, men of letters are statesmen and diplomatists. We take our administrators and our ambassadors from the Montagues and the Capulets of politics, and from them only."

On some points we cannot agree with Prof. Rogers. He disputes, for instance, the so-called Ricardian theory of Rent (pp. 51 and 54), a theory which, however overstrained in formal statements, seems to us in its essence to lie at the very bottom of the laws of distribution. He opposes, as Mr. Cobden did, the doctrine of minority representation; and here he makes a point which, although we cannot admit its conclusiveness, is weighty and suggestive: "Let each man secure by minority representation . . . the reproduction of the tenets he accepts in a representative, and his motive for debate ceases; he has no need to attempt to win others over, he may be perfectly satisfied with having given his voice. But as long as the majority rules and the minority submits, it is the business of the minority to criticise the judgment of the majority, to impugn its validity, to try to convert it to a different way of thinking" (p. 300). Here he overlooks the fact that of course the majority must rule in the last resort. Minority representation would undoubtedly take away from elections some of their vehemence—no loss that—but could not materially diminish the earnestness of real debate. Again, p. 322: "The true student of political philosophy has a feeling which is almost contemptuous towards forms of government. He is a stranger to that enthusiasm which some men call loyalty, and equally a stranger to that passionate hatred of dynasties and institutions which some men call a love of freedom. He is at war with no institution, with no privilege which is not noxious. He reserves his ardor for the solid freedom of unrestricted employment, exchange, enjoyment; provided employment, exchange, enjoyment are innocent." There is a share of right judgment in these words, but are we to understand that Mr. Rogers looks upon freedom as the end of society, and free trade as its highest aspiration?

We must not overlook Mr. Rogers's vindication of Cobden on this point, as not a "peace at any price" man and as not an enemy of culture and classical training. On both these points the vindication is complete and gratifying, and we cannot end better than with a few words of Cobden himself on the latter head (p. 378): "I am a great advocate of culture of every kind, and I say where you can find men who, in addition to profound classical learning, like [instancing some of his friends], have a vast know-

* Cobden and Modern Political Opinion. Essays on certain political topics. By James E. Thorold Rogers. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873. 8vo, pp. xvi.-322.

ledge of modern affairs, and who, as well as scholars, are at the same time thinkers, these men I acknowledge to have a vast superiority over me, and I bow to these men with reverence for these superior advantages."

Jean de Thommeray; Le Colonel Evrard. Par Jules Sandeau, de l'Académie Française. (Paris: Michel Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.)—Now that, as one may say without unkindness, the sun of Madame Sand's genius has dipped pretty well into the horizon, and M. Gustave Flaubert seems to have told the one good story he had to tell, and M. Octave Feuillet breaks his long silences to no great purpose, and M. Dumas fils, who has produced at least one very clever tale, has taken to writing prefaces to his own and other people's masterpieces—in this not very brilliant state of affairs we know no French novelist whom we prefer on the whole to M. Jules Sandeau. His novels, some time ago, brought him into the Academy, which was natural enough, as they rigorously respect all the proprieties, moral and literary. M. Sandeau is a writer with a finished and perhaps slightly conscious style, but with a good deal of graceful invention. His two last *nouvelles* have just been republished, and 'Jean de Thommeray' has met with great success. We recommend it to such American readers as are not above looking for something in a novel besides the "story," in the belief that it will provoke them to some entertaining reflection. Jean de Thommeray is a young man of old Breton family, and, with a natural aptitude for everything beautiful and honorable, brought up in the faith of his ancestors, and wishing only for a noble cause—preferably in the æsthetic line—to take service in. He comes up to Paris at twenty, full of ingenuous ardor and literary hero-worship, and discovers that morally he is terribly out of the fashion. A clever young man, who is very much in it, writes a jesting squib about him in a *petit journal*; the inevitable duel ensues. Thommeray is seriously wounded, and is ordered to Italy to recover. The author of the impertinent parody had been an ostensible friend; but under the sky of Pisa the young man's shattered faith in fine things begins also to mend, and beguiles him into a misplaced passion for a young Parisian lady of the first fashion, whom he most erroneously fancies an angel. His pious and tender mother, who has come to nurse him, vainly combats his delusion; he is fascinated and perverted; he shakes off the poor mother and follows the profligate Countess. The latter deceives him, betrays him, swindles him, literally, in an episode very skillfully related, whereupon he flings the last of his young superstitions to the winds, and plunges into shameless dissipation. He becomes a professional gambler, lives publicly with a certain Fiametta, and passes for a prince of rakes. His parents, of whom he had been the especial darling, are bowed to the earth with grief and shame; he abjures every vestige of filial tenderness, and they mourn him in bitterness as one morally dead. He is fatally corrupted—as hard as a stone. Meanwhile, the war with Germany breaks out, and Jean de Thommeray does not hesitate to declare that patriotism is all stuff; that the country may take care of herself; that he means to take himself off with his dressing-case and weather the storm on safer shores. He makes this declaration in the street to the friend who figures as narrator of the tale. The latter blows him up for an abandoned coward, and Thommeray shrugs his shoulders. Suddenly, as they stand there—on the Quai Voltaire, beside the Seine—the sound of martial music is heard. Thommeray listens; it is an air of his native Brittany, played on the Breton *binou*. The Breton *gardes mobiles* are entering Paris. At the head of the troop rides his father; behind the old *gentilhomme* ride his two other sons. At this moment Madame de Thommeray, the mother, appears on a neighboring balcony, waving her handkerchief. The young man stares; he seems changed into stone. His friend leaves him to the mercy of God. The next day, in the court of the Louvre, old M. de Thommeray marshals his battalion; a new-comer approaches and demands a place in the ranks. "Your name?" "Jean; a man who has lived ill and wishes to reform." A moment later the roll is called. "Jean de Thommeray!" cries the commander. A manly voice answers "Present!"

The purpose of M. Sandeau's tale is to show us a corrupted heart regenerated by patriotism. The operation is performed, certainly, in a very effective tableau, but at some cost, we think, of real human truth. The author has meant to be moral, but he seems to us to have been quite the contrary; and his *dénouement* strikes us as a very good example of the dangerous uses to which a moral idea may be put by a clever French mind with a taste for "situations." It is of more importance (if we are to have a moral tale about it) that Jean de Thommeray and other headlong sinners should be left awhile to the gloomy impression that there is absolutely no redemption from luxurious vice than that their country should muster them under her banners. During the siege of Paris it was thought a very natural and irreproachable arrangement that wounded soldiers should be nursed in the houses, and at the expense, of the sisterhood of which our hero's Fiametta was an ornament—a view of things in which the ascent from Avernus seems really the

easier path of the two. There is decidedly an abuse in France of the idea of "rehabilitation." M. Sandeau has told his story in a manner worthy of an Academician; but as a patriotic retrospect and invocation—the best an Academician could muster—our imagination does not warm to it. If we were a German professor of chemistry, in spectacles, who had lived through the siege of Paris, we are afraid we should laugh at it. But in that case, twenty to one we should be utterly insensitive to its charm of style. To 'Le Colonel Evrard' belongs this charm of style, though the tale is otherwise slight.

Spain and its People. A Record of Recent Travel. From the French of Eugène Poitou. (New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1873.)—Although this purports to be a "record of recent travel," it is already eight years since M. Poitou made his visit to Spain. But as his book does not profess to treat of Spanish politics, the lapse of time makes little difference. There is an old story that St. Peter when revisiting earth was obliged, amid the multitudinous changes on every hand, to hire a guide through most of Europe, but on entering Spain he dismissed him. "Here," said the saint, "everything is just as I left it." It is certainly a country where nothing but the constitution appears ephemeral or transitory. So M. Poitou's book is a faithful picture of what travellers might see at any time during the last twenty years. Within this period, it is true, the railways have to a great extent taken the place of the old diligences. But Spanish railways are an exotic. They are built, managed, and worked by foreigners. Their only distinctively Spanish features, as M. Poitou had occasion to learn, are the slowness and irregularity of the trains and the stock of patience required in journeying on them. The author's trip was completed in little over sixty days, three only of which he originally allotted to Granada. But he religiously saw every object that lay in his path. Comparing a somewhat voluminous journal of our own, we can find but one thing—the cemetery at Seville—which M. Poitou does not mention. His route was the usual one: from Madrid to Cordova, Seville, and Cadiz, and then by Gibraltar and Malaga to Granada. Cadiz, by the way, which is one of the most charming halting-places in the Peninsula, is dismissed with the briefest notice, while page after page is devoted to the reign of Don Pedro the Cruel. Indeed, the main feature of the book is its incorporation of such bits of Spanish history and biography. We often seem to be reading a guide-book rather than a record of travel. The English editor pushes this practice almost to a ridiculous extreme, inserting after the author's sketch of Loyola a page in fine print from Macaulay's essays, and after the author's mention of Biarritz a long extract from Henri Taine. As people are not generally very familiar with the details of Spanish history, many of these episodes will interest the reader. But when we find information about Columbus and the Cid, simply because the author is somewhere near Palos and Valencia, though he did not visit either place, the additions look very much like padding.

The best passages in the book are the notes on Spanish character. The peculiarities of the nation are so striking that, after a few months in Spain, one feels better acquainted with the people than after years of residence in other countries. M. Poitou is an acute observer, and his conclusions are sharply defined. But we do not think he accounts fully or satisfactorily for the decline of the country and the apparent decadence of the people since the time of Charles the Fifth. French life and training tend to disqualify a man for weighing and assigning the true causes of this. In speaking of the corrupt administration of justice, our author puts into the mouth of a Spaniard a retort so unmistakably and charmingly French that we must insert it. A suitor from whom large sums of money were exacted at last exclaimed indignantly, "Is there, then, no justice in Spain?" "Yes," quietly answered the judge, "am I not selling it to you?"

The book is written in a clear, lively style, and is well illustrated and inviting in appearance. It is generally accurate, and describes Spanish exteriors well. American readers who would like to see the country without travelling so far can find a close likeness in California. They will have the fertile soil, the mines of quicksilver and gold, the same grapes, olives, oranges, and figs, the rugged mountains bare of vegetation, the exquisite coloring at sunrise and sunset, the clear air, the winter rains, the long, dry summer, the dusty, lonely roads, the sparse population. They can find the same adobe houses, and they may perhaps see in them the last dregs of the same people. And it is not many years since they might have witnessed, at San Rafael on the bay of San Francisco, a bull-fight as brutal as that described by M. Poitou.

History of Scotland. By Margaret Macarthur. Edited by Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L. Edition adapted for American students. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874. 12mo, pp. 199.)—It has been remarked that the very name of Edward Freeman expresses the genuine English sympathies

and the hearty love of free institutions which distinguish this historian; and one might almost fancy that he selected his coadjutors as much from their names as their qualifications. There could not be a name more thoroughly English than Edith Thompson, nor one more thoroughly Scotch than Margaret Macarthur. This history of Scotland is the third volume of his series; Italy, by Rev. Mr. Hunt, is announced as the fourth. The key given by the editor in the opening work is very well maintained. The first thing that strikes the reader, as in Mr. Freeman's 'Outlines,' is the originality and felicity of title of the general divisions. The periods of Scottish history here given are: "Gaelic Period," down to the sons of Malcolm Canmore (1097); "English Period," to the death of Alexander III. (1286)—the period during which Scotland became Anglicized in character; "Struggle for Independence," "Independent Kingdom," "The Jameses," etc. A second feature is the amount of detail which is made consistent with a generally free and interesting narrative. As in Mr. Freeman's work, the amount of such detail is rather in excess, and we think this will be pronounced the principal defect of this series. It is certain that there is none too much for Scotch students, but it would be out of the question for any other country but Scotland, and perhaps England, to use this as a school text-book. Miss Macarthur differs from the great Scotch historian, Mr. Burton, in a more general readiness to accept a solution of difficult questions. She represents the Picts, for example, as unquestionably Celtic, and gives relatively much more space to the shadowy kings between Kenneth MacAlpin and Malcolm Canmore than that eminently cautious and incredulous historian. Frequently we get from this a much livelier picture, and one perhaps none the less true. Another point in which she is superior to Mr. Burton is genealogical relations; several points of this nature are made clear in this little book which are left quite obscure in the larger work.

In the two great controverted questions of Scotch history—relative to Edward I. and Mary, Queen of Scots—the view here presented is eminently calm and fair. Whether Mary was guilty of actual crime in her relations with Daruley, Bothwell, and Elizabeth is left undecided. However that may be, "it was her own folly and sin that changed the love of her people into hate, and their rejection of her stands out as one of the facts in their history that does most honor to the nation" (p. 107). As to Edward's treatment of Scotland:

"In placing John Balliol, the rightful heir, on the throne, he was doing no more than had been done by the King of England, acting as overlord, in the cases of Malcolm Canmore and Edgar; but his way of placing him there was not strictly just; the conditions which he required were such as he had no right to exact, nor John to accept. He made him do homage for his kingdom as though it had been an English fief. Now, though this was true as far as concerned Lothian, and partly true as concerned Strathclyde, as concerned Scotland it was untrue. Although Scotland had, since 924, been in some degree subject to the king of England, this dependence was no more than was implied by the 'commendation,' the very natural relation of the weaker to the stronger. But it must be remembered that three centuries had passed since that first commendation, and in that time the original simplicity of the feudal tenure had been altogether changed, and in great measure forgotten. Edward looked on the three parts of Scotland as fiefs, and therefore subject to the same burthens as his other fiefs; the Scots knew that they were not thus subject, and they therefore argued that their kingdom was in no way dependent on England; thus both parties were partly right and partly wrong" (p. 38).

This moderate view is the one, we venture to say, which will prevail over the heated arguments of both sides in the controversy. It will be seen from this passage quoted that Miss Macarthur writes in an excellent style. We will especially remark that the constitutional history is full and good for the size of the book.

My Kalulu, Prince, King, and Slave. A Story of Central Africa. By Henry M. Stanley. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.)—It shows how we have got on since the days of 'Uncle Tom,' when a *Herald* attaché is found writing an abolition novel for youthful readers. Opposition to slavery, whether practised by or upon blacks or whites, is in fact the moral motive of this interesting story, which has for its other chief motive the desire to furnish, in palatable form, exact information concerning the countries and peoples visited by Mr. Stanley in his search after Livingstone. On this point we may borrow the author's own language (p. 326): "The countries are laid down with a fidelity which generally belongs to standard geographical works, and no liberties are taken with the habits, the customs, or the true ethnology of the great country of Ututa, or with the geography of Central Africa; neither with the probabilities of a life in that far region. The chain of circumstances, as here portrayed, alone belongs to the romantic and the fictitious; and this fact the author would fain impress upon the minds of his readers." The plot is as follows: A number of wealthy Arabs at Zanzibar join in an expedition to Rua in quest of ivory and slaves. Several of them are accompanied by their sons. In an attack upon a hostile native village

the party is utterly routed, and the survivors made slaves. Two of the boys' whose fathers had perished, after many hardships reach the home of Prince Kalulu, by whom they are set at liberty and treated as brothers. Then ensue a series of rapid vicissitudes, which end in Kalulu's taking flight for Zanzibar in company with Selim, Abdullah, and two faithful slaves belonging to the original expedition. Part of their course lies on Lake Tanganyika. Kalulu gets separated from his companions, and his troubles do not cease till he is exposed for sale at Zanzibar, where Selim steps forward to redeem him. In all these adventures there is nothing glaringly improbable, and what seems so in the development of character is a pardonable consequence of the moral purpose of the book. The lack of literary skill, too, is in a measure atoned for by the evident genuineness of the whole performance; and at times Mr. Stanley succeeds in being both natural and skilful, as in the chapter called "Happy Days"—a very pleasing description of a young boy's feelings of repose after the most dreadful experiences, and of a dreamy sympathy with sky and woods and waters, and all the sights and sounds of nature, in his unrestrained and careless wanderings. In short, our respect for the author of 'How I found Livingstone' has been increased by this story, in which the only features that might seem to make it objectionable for the young are the frank accounts of savage brutality. But Mr. Stanley may plausibly reply that they even fall short of the truth, and that only in this way could the slave-trade be made to appear in its true light, and to inspire the abhorrence which it so richly deserves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Cherbuliez (V.), <i>Prosper: a Tale</i>	(Henry Holt & Co.) \$1 25
Collins (W.), <i>The Dead Alive</i>	(Shepard & Gill)
Cooke (Prof. J. P., jr.), <i>The New Chemistry</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Davies (T. A.), <i>Genesis Disclosed</i>	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)
De Forest (J. W.), <i>The Wetherel Affair</i>	(Sheldon & Co.) 1 75
Lewes (G. H.), <i>Problems of Life and Mind, Vol. I.</i>	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Lippincott's Magazine, Vol. 12.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Marshall (Emma), <i>A Lily among Thorns</i>	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)
Milvart (St. G.), <i>Man and Apes</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Mason (Prof. D.), <i>Drummond of Hawthornden</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Mackay (C.), <i>Lost Beauties of the English Language</i>	(J. W. Bouton)
Quick (R. H.), <i>Essays on Educational Reformers</i>	(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 2 00
Rich (A.), <i>Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities, 3d ed.</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Schedler (J.), <i>Topographical Map of Cuba</i>	(E. Steiger)
Stieler (A.), <i>Hand-Atlas, Part 17, swd.</i>	(L. W. Schmidt)
The Art-Journal, Jan., 1874, swd.....	(Virtue & Vorston)
The Workshop, No. 1, swd.....	(E. Steiger)
Townsend (Mary A.), <i>The Captain's Story: Poetry, swd.</i>	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 0 50
The Cloud of Witnesses: Poetry.....	(James Miller)

Fine Arts.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.—THE LOAN COLLECTION.

II.—CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.*

THE enamels at the Museum comprise a great many specimens of cloisonnés, with a fair show of champlevés and incrusté or painted specimens. It is not so many years since a grand mystery was made of the cloisonné enamel from China and Japan, unscrupulous dealers representing the art as lost; it was soon found, however, by collectors that this ware was producible in any quantity to meet the views of purchasers, and the market, in fact, a flourishing one of producers and takers. The specimens really valued by connoisseurs are some eight or nine hundred years old, and are of course almost unattainable. Some very ancient cloisonnés were spared by the Japanese Government to adorn the Exposition at Vienna, and the same exhibitors showed the manufacture in its various states of preparation, thus affording to Barbedienne and other jewellers an opportunity for study of which they were not slow to avail themselves. The fault in the earlier imitations of Barbedienne was the thickness and clumsiness of the metal partitions between the colors—the seams, in the Japanese method, being kept very fine, and dividing the pattern like hairs of gold. Cloisonné enamelling, the reader will understand, is the decoration of metal, or sometimes of porcelain, objects with burnt vitreous colors, each of which tints is separately plastered into its minute cell, the partitions of which show upon the surface in shining brassy threads. The seams, according to the demonstration of the art in the Japanese Department at Vienna, are sometimes cast with the vessel itself as a part of its form, and at others laid out upon its surface as slender wire filigree. The cells are filled by hand, the enamels being painted or plastered into their places, with a color for each cell, or sometimes two colors shaded into each other at the junction. The object is then burnt like any enamel, and finally ground to a polished face. Specimens are seen, however, in which the surface is left undressed, like a Roman mosaic, giving a pleasing irregularity of level, while the metallic seams, untouched by the grindstone, show

* See *Nation* of November 13, 1873.

their edges decorated with a spiral, like minute cords. No example of this particular sort is shown at the Museum, but pieces of almost every other kind, on metal and porcelain, from Japan and China, are or have been exhibited there in profusion. The most ancient Chinese cloisonnés carry a very impressive appearance of antiquity; some of those which Mr. Edward Matthews deposited among his large and generous contribution, having a supposed existence of eight hundred years, and showing the dingy and corroded surface of age, seemed to display besides in their heavy, low, wormy, and dragon-like forms a sort of primeval or saurian period in Chinese design. One vase from the same loan, two feet high, attributed to the twelfth century, and purchased for three thousand francs, and another obtained at the Baron de Rougemont's sale for two thousand five hundred francs, may be cited as showing cloisonnés of China in an early and rare stage, and as indicating the high price put upon these ancient pieces in modern times. The depth of color and austerity of design seen in these relics seem to have passed over from Chinese to Japanese art; the modern enamels from China having gay and flowery arabesques, while the taste in which the Japanese cloisonnés are conceived shows once again the more sombre and subdued spirit of that nation's design. The showiest piece of enamel in the whole Museum, though not old enough to satisfy the most exacting taste, is still very beautiful, and is Chinese; it was bought in China by the exhibitor, Mr. Meredith Howland, and is attributed to the seventeenth century; this vase stands nearly four feet high, and is of a corpulent urn-shape, the body of it decorated with a cloisonné marvel of aquatic leaves and flowers in exquisite taste; the three cranes on which it rests, whose snowy feathers, outlined with gold, form a fine contrast to the colors above, are lively and natural in attitude; and mountings of gilded bronze add to the general opulence of effect. The loans in this ware are of all sizes, from small dagger-handles and boxes up to vases about as large as a human torso. One object, like a teapot, is translucent, and therefore of different manufacture from the majority—the ordinary enamels on porcelain, which, by the bye, are much less common than the metallic vessels, not having a light-transmitting quality; one bowl of very old Japanese cloisonné has a well-designed fish apparently swimming at the bottom.

Of Oriental wares in general, we may state that a considerable addition has been made by Mr. Avery to his contribution of porcelains. He exhibits, among other things, a fine bowl of Japanese painted enamel, with design of tiger-lilies on a white ground. There are various pieces of Chinese champlévé, not available, however, for particular description. Mr. C. L. Tiffany exhibits a bowl and its cover, with a small vase and a jug, of the rare Japanese Kaga ware. The Oriental bronzes are quite abundant, but not usually of an excessively scarce sort; a valuable specimen, however, is the bowl with a Tibetan inscription, standing on three feet, lent by Mr. Phoenix, and attributed to the Ming dynasty, Tching-te period—the Ming monarchs, ruling about the close of the fourteenth century, were ambitious of cultivating the national art up to its utmost development; and a richly beautiful one is the small tea-urn belonging to Mr. Matthews, with a coral-branch for handle, a lid of lotus-leaves, and a body decorated with golden dashes, supposed to be formed by allowing lumps of gold to drop into the melted bronze and sputter capriciously through its substance. The various painted, incrustated, and champlévé enamels, usually involved with jeweller's work, and coming down to the most modern time in various countries, need not here be specially mentioned; but before leaving the Mongolian regions we must notice a few interesting objects in other wares.

In one famous industry the Museum is really rich. It would be hard to find, outside of the patrician collections of the Orient, better specimens of the inimitable lacquers of Japan than those exhibited by Mr. Phoenix. Here are numbers of boxes, in the most various shapes, showing an exact-

ness of form, a sharpness of edge, and a lustre of gold resembling the truest finish of the jeweller, yet produced in the material of wood, whose outlines besides are sunken under various coats of varnish; it is a property, noticed by the French connoisseur, Albert Jacquemart, of the oldest and finest lacquer to have an absorbent gloss which so strikes beneath the surface as to bring up apparently the substratum of gold to the eye. "The observer," he remarks, "seems to see a mineral or metallic matter finely polished, rather than a resinous covering." This is easily verified in the wooden jewelry of these rare old artificers. One loan of Mr. Phoenix's shows a large coffer and a table service, in lacquer, from the ex-Shogun's palace at Osaka. The forms are plain, but most richly chased with a detail of chrysanthemum-flowers or marguerites, laid in plain gold upon a ground sparkling with the powdered lustre of the *avanturine*. The boxes contributed by Mr. Sturgis, when compared with those just mentioned, show the playful caprices in which Japanese box-carvers are prone to indulge; the silhouette of the lids is in the most curious taste, showing now a couple of fans thrown together, now a ship under sail, now a Daimio crouching to the ground in all his draperies; while the ornaments set into other pieces are of poetic beauty—a dark bat sailing over a crescent moon of pearl; a crane displayed so as exactly to fill a circle with its expanded wings, etc. Among Mr. Sturgis's tasteful collection, by the bye, is an object which decidedly widens the horizon of statuary as a representation of nature. Artists of classic prejudices who consider the landscape specialty as a base innovation, often taunt the *paysagiste*, asking him why he confines himself to canvas and color, why he does not create a school of landscape sculpture. The thing is not generally considered feasible, but here is an ignorant Eastern carver, completely unconscious of our schools, and solving with vast ingenuity the problem of plastic scenery. The object at first appears to be a decorated rhinoceros-horn, about a foot high, but proves to be of wood; it is a perfect microcosm of all the elements of landscape, showing a river with boats, forests, rocks, plants, vapors, figures in throngs, a god descending on a cloud—in fact, objects enough to have lasted Turner all his life; and everything expressed in statuary.

The representation made by the old Chinese Soo-Chow lacquer is very interesting. This is a thick resinous substance, applied in heavy beds or layers to wooden bowls and boxes, and cut when hard, as if it were sealing-wax, into open basket-work patterns, pointed with all the sharpness of hand-carving. Sometimes two colors are superimposed, green showing through the interstices of vermilion. Mr. Barlow shows a specimen of this lacquer laid upon the exterior of a porcelain basin. According to M. Jacquemart, the "*laque rouge ciselé, dit de Ti-tcheou*," is ultimately of Japanese invention. "The workmen employed in the sculpture of red lacquer, to perfect themselves in their craft, always went upon a longer or shorter apprenticeship in the Japanese workshops. This kind," he continues, "is sold at a high price, even in China, which is proper, considering the nicety of the craftsmanship, the profusion of ornaments, and the finish of every part; we can set up this sculpture in paste against nothing but the most remarkable bas-reliefs in ivory or nacre."

Japan abounds in ornamental work of fairy delicacy, the labor seemingly of sharp pigmy fingers. The sliding beads called *mitchki*, worn by a rich Japanese to confine the silken cords of his equipment, are marvels of the minute: specimens in the Museum, no larger than a walnut, but cut with equal invention and care, are real gems, showing such fantasies as a tiny skeleton climbing over a skull, a tortoise on a curled lotus-leaf, children putting on masks, or a pile of expressive human heads. The microscopic carvings sent in by Mr. Howland, showing fine grotesques in ivory, where skeletons, children, apes, and larger animals play a part, are also rare in conception and technic.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, February 3, 1874.

UNWONTED steadiness has been the trait of all branches of the money market during the week past. A moderate amount of business has been done; money has changed hands freely without altering the rates to any marked extent; prices have been firm, without noticeable fluctuations. The equipoise of the diverse disputants in Congress on financial subjects has temporarily served the purposes of a fixed policy. The exports and imports have maintained a wholesome proportion. Manufacturers here and there are resuming. The miners have composed their differences with the capitalists. Iron furnaces long out of blast are heating up. Railroad companies are enjoying fair revenues from their roads, and the strongest of them are actually getting ready to complete their additional tracks and branch-feeders begun last year. A survey of the industrial field, so far as its nerves reach the Wall-Street centre, shows increasing strength and healthful activity.

The bank movement shows that the managers are becoming more confident by parting with more of their deposits; the increase in the amount of loans and discounts being nearly two and a half millions. Gold also is disappearing from the bank-vaults, taking its flight to the hard-money countries to cancel our debts—that being the readiest and, on the whole, the cheapest commodity in our market.

The following will give an idea of the changes from the previous week:

	Total.	Changes.
Loans.....	\$269,945,800	Inc. \$2,384,700
Specie.....	33,342,100	Dec. 1,397,000
Legal Tenders.....	58,877,700	Inc. 994,400
Deposits.....	233,119,800	Inc. 428,000
Circulation.....	26,848,800	Dec. 125,900

Notwithstanding the decrease in specie, the banks are still keeping a full line of legal-tender notes in reserve, equal to nearly 26 per cent. of their total liabilities for deposits and circulation.

As an evidence of the drift of capital and of the utility of the attempt to throw safeguards of legislation around banking business, it is noticeable that there have been more accessions to the banks doing business under the old banking law in New York State than to those under national charter—such banks of course being without circulating notes. The following figures will show the magnitude of this movement since 1867:

	National Banks.	State Banks.
Capital.....	Dec. \$6,000,000	Inc. \$12,500,000
Deposits.....	Dec. 30,000,000	Inc. 30,600,000
Total resources.....	Inc. 3,000,000	Inc. 48,000,000

The public-debt statement is made to show a decrease in the month of

January of \$1,845,000. There is reason to believe that this decrease is apparent rather than real, and is probably due to the presence of warrants drawn by the Treasurer for interest payments to bond-holders on the side of the account, while the coin with which they are yet to be actually paid is counted as still in the ownership of the Government.

Gold, which has kept within the limits of 111 and 112 for the week, closed at 111½. Below are the closing prices of Government issues. There is a very steady demand for the leading classes of bonds from institutions, and of the coupon six per cents. for shipment abroad also.

U. S. Currency 6's	115½@115½	U. S. 5-20, 1865, c. new, July...	116½@116½
U. S. 6's, 1881, c.	118½@118½	U. S. 5-20, 1867, c.	117½@117½
U. S. 5-20, 1862, c. May & Nov.	115½@11½	U. S. 5-20, 1868, c.	117½@118
U. S. 5-20, 1864, c.	116½@116½	U. S. 10-40, c.	114½@114½
U. S. 5-20, 1865, c.	117½@117½	U. S. 5's of 1881, c.	111½@111½

The following is the comparative statement of the exports (exclusive of specie) from the port of New York to foreign ports for the week ending January 27 and since January 1:

	1872.	1873.	1874.
For the week.....	\$5,150,172	\$4,856,819	\$5,406,967
Previously reported.....	9,415,177	12,554,662	15,374,522
Since January 1.....	\$14,565,319	\$17,411,481	\$20,781,489
Price of gold.....	108½	113½	111½

The gold rate and the rates of foreign exchange indicate that we are rather gaining on our adverse balances with foreign countries. The prevailing rate for sight and sixty-day bills has been between 483 and 486½, or a trifle below the true parity of exchange.

Nearly everything in the way of railroad income-bearing stocks and bonds, or those prospectively so, finds buyers; and the course of prices establishes the fact that the amounts offering in market are not in excess of the capital seeking investment.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading Stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, January 31, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103½ 103½	103½ 104	103 103½	102½ 103½	102½ 103½	103 103½	39.6 0
Lake Shore.....	82 82½	82½ 83½	81½ 82	80½ 82½	80½ 81½	81½ 82	153.01
Erie.....	47 48	46½ 47½	47 47½	48½ 48½	48½ 50½	48½ 50½	27.300
Union Pacific.....	34½ 35½	34½ 35½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 35½	71.400
Chl. & N. W.	60½ 60½	60½ 60½	59½ 60½	57½ 59½	58½ 59½	58½ 59½	15.000
N. J. Central.....	100½ 102½	102½ 103	102½ 103	101½ 102½	101½ 102½	101½ 102½	6.300
Rock Island.....	104½ 105½	105½ 105½	104½ 105	104½ 104½	104½ 104½	104½ 105	5.100
Mil. & St. Paul.....	46½ 48	45½ 47½	45½ 46½	45½ 46½	46½ 46½	46½ 46½	48.01
D. C. pfd.....	71½ 72½	71½ 72	71½ 71½	71½ 71½	71 71	71½ 71½	5.401
Wabash.....	53½ 54½	53½ 54½	53½ 53½	52½ 53½	52½ 53½	53½ 53½	33.5 0
D. L. & W.	102½ 104½	104½ 105½	104½ 105½	104½ 105½	104½ 105½	104½ 105½	14.2 0
O. & M.	33½ 34½	31 34½	33½ 35	31 34½	31 34½	31 34½	4.4 01
C. C. & I. C.	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	30½ 31½	31 31½	31 31½	31 31½	3.0 01
W. U. Tel.	76½ 77½	76½ 77	75½ 76½	75½ 76½	75½ 76½	75½ 76½	1.8 200
Pacific Mail.....	41½ 41½	41½ 41½	40½ 41½	40½ 41½	39½ 41½	41 41½	71.400

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